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Contents of previous issues of the *Bulletin* of the American Association of University Professors may be found by consulting the EDUCATION INDEX.

The Index to this *Bulletin* for 1949 (Volume 35) will be published in the Spring, 1950 issue of the *Bulletin* (Volume 36, Number 1). Pre-prints of the Index will be available upon request for binding purposes.

—The Editor

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HIGHER EDUCATION AND FREEDOM

The *Bulletin* of the American Association of University Professors believes that freedom is essential to the American way of life. The *Bulletin* believes also that freedom is essential to higher education. The *Bulletin* believes further that the principles of freedom, both constitutional and academic, are very imperfectly understood by the public generally and by many whose life work is college and university teaching and research and/or administration, and by many members of the governing boards of institutions of higher education. To the end that the principles of freedom, both constitutional and academic, may be better understood, the *Bulletin* frequently publishes articles, addresses, and statements on the subject of freedom, both constitutional and academic. Some of these are cited below.¹

The statements that follow, by Robert Maynard Hutchins, Chancellor of the University of Chicago, by Daniel L. Marsh, President of Boston University, and by the Committee on Qualifications and the Executive Committee of Phi Beta Kappa, are concerned with the principles of freedom in institutions of higher education. The *Bulletin* invites thoughtful consideration of these three statements and also of the articles, addresses, and statements in reference to freedom recently published in these pages, and invites its readers to submit for consideration for publication other pertinent statements on the subject of freedom, both constitutional and academic.

THE EDITORS

¹ "Political Interference in Educational Administration," Spring, 1949, p. 10; "Science and Dogma," Spring, 1949, p. 10; Annual Report of Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure for 1948, Spring, 1949, pp. 49-65; "Academic Freedom and Tenure—Evansville College," Spring, 1949, pp. 74-111; "What Price Freedom?" by Robert Maynard Hutchins, Summer, 1949, pp. 211-215; "The State University and the Public," by Charles L. Mowat, Summer, 1949, pp. 216-223; "Are We Afraid of Freedom?" by Laird Bell, Summer, 1949, pp. 301-312; "Freedom at Harvard"—An Exchange of Letters by Frank B. Ober, Baltimore, Md., James B. Conant, President of Harvard University, and Grenville Clark, Fellow of Harvard College, Summer, 1949, pp. 313-334; "Freedom and Fear," by Zechariah Chafee, Jr., Autumn, 1949, pp. 397-433; "Fire Bell in the Night," by Henry M. Wriston, Autumn, 1949, pp. 434-449; "The Colleges, The Government and Freedom," by Bernard DeVoto, Autumn, 1949, pp. 468-475; "Correspondence with a Chapter Officer"—a discussion of the factor of membership in the Communist Party in relation to the principles of academic freedom and tenure, by Leroy H. Buckingham and Ralph E. Himstead, Autumn, 1949, pp. 545-558.

II

"The prerequisites for getting good men are academic freedom, good salaries, good living conditions, and time for research. In spite of all the pressures of the last twenty years, the Board of Trustees has stood firmly for the right of the professor to investigate and teach according to his conscience, and it has stood with equal firmness for his right as a citizen to do and say whatever other citizens may legally do and say.

"The great asset of the University of Chicago is its independence. There is no necessary conflict between the independence of universities and state control. In Scandinavia and Holland, for example, we do not expect the universities to be exposed to political risks and to have to change their policies when the government of the day is replaced by another. In England, where the dependence of the universities upon the state is growing every year, we do not expect Oxford and Cambridge to take orders from the party in power. The reason we do not is that in England, as in Scandinavia and Holland, the tradition of academic freedom is long and well established. The independence of the universities is in those countries regarded as vital to the progress of the state. The universities are not thought of as having any relation to political patronage. Nor are they thought of as service stations erected to meet the real or imagined needs of the strongest pressure groups in the community. They are thought of as independent centers of thought and criticism.

"It cannot be claimed that the tradition of academic freedom is well established in this country. If one legislature is convinced of its value, it may be followed by another of the opposite opinion. One governor may be well disposed. The next may be hostile. The service-station conception means not so much that the University serves the state as that it serves any group in the state that has the votes.

"In this country the independent universities have to set the standard by which the others are judged. They, at least, if they do not measure up to their own ideals, have only themselves to blame. In the atmosphere in which education operates in this country they have a hard enough time. Twice during the last

twenty years the University of Chicago has been investigated by the legislature of Illinois on the ground that something subversive was going on here. On each occasion the charges evaporated.

"On each occasion the Board of Trustees demonstrated the value of the independent university. Such a university can take the long view. If a public university does not yield to pressure, it must face the possibility that its appropriations will be drastically reduced and its administration forced out of office. The tradition of academic freedom in the United States is primarily intrusted to the independent universities.

"A university must stand for something, and that must be something other than what vocal minorities, or majorities, demand at the moment. Universities are the home of the life of the mind. They are intellectual centers. One of the most difficult tasks of university administration is to make clear to the public the necessity of such centers if society is to have any vitality. The price that must be paid for social vitality is the toleration, and even the encouragement, of independent thought and criticism.

"The current excitement about Communists in the universities must be regarded as hysterical, since the number of such persons is infinitesimal. The desire to impose loyalty oaths or other special tests upon teachers is of the same emotional order. To forbid Party members to hold teaching posts will merely lead them to conceal their membership. To require oaths of loyalty will merely induce disloyal teachers, if there are any, to commit perjury. The test of membership in a university faculty should be the competence and integrity of the individual. As to this the best evidence is his own performance rather than that of his friends or political associates."¹

ROBERT MAYNARD HUTCHINS, *Chancellor*
The University of Chicago

III

"Freedom is the breath of life to higher education. The soul of the university dies of suffocation without freedom. Recently,

¹ From "The State of the University [University of Chicago] 1929-49," pp. 11-13; presented to the Board of Trustees of the University, September 21, 1949.

when the University of Chicago was ordered to be investigated by the Illinois State Legislature because of the charge of subversive influence, Chancellor Hutchins appeared before the Legislative Committee and spoke with commendable courage and conviction. He declared that he did not know of any Communists in the faculty of the University of Chicago, but that some of them were charged with being Communists or Fellow Travelers with the Communists because they belonged to certain committees and organizations to which Communists also belonged. To which Chancellor Hutchins made the unanswerable rejoinder: 'The University of Chicago does not believe in the un-American doctrine of guilt by association. The fact that some Communists belong to, believe in, or even dominate some of the organizations to which some of our professors belong does not show that those professors are engaged in subversive activities. All that such facts would show would be that these professors believed in some of the objects of the organizations.' In the days of the Civil War, if one Southerner did not like another, he called him a 'Damn Yankee,' and if one Northerner did not like another, he called him a 'Rebel' or a 'Copperhead.' In the two World Wars the popular sobriquet with which to dub the person you did not like was 'German sympathizer.' Today, if anybody says anything with which you do not agree, or takes a stand contrary to the position you hold, then tar him with the stick of opprobrium by calling him a Communist! The net result of all this, of course, is to give Communism a semblance of respectability.

"Boston University has been singularly free from such charges. Our students are sensible and well behaved; our professors enjoy uncurtailed academic freedom; our trustees have shown superb judgment in their stanch recognition of the fact that while the trustees are to govern, they are not to administer. Therefore academic freedom within the University is protected, and name-calling by the members of the University family is not indulged in. We believe with Woodrow Wilson that 'the seed of revolution is repression.' We believe with Justice Louis D. Brandeis that 'in frank expression of conflicting opinion lies the greatest promise of wisdom in governmental action; and in suppression lies ordinarily the greatest peril.' We believe with Thomas Jefferson,

in his First Inaugural Address, that 'if there be any among us who wish to dissolve this union, or change its republican form, let them stand undisturbed, as monuments of the safety with which error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it.'"¹

DANIEL L. MARSH, *President*
Boston University

IV

"As a Society committed since 1776 to the promotion of liberal studies and the ideal of freedom in education, Phi Beta Kappa is firmly opposed to efforts, from either the extreme right or the extreme left, to restrict within our institutions of learning the impartial analysis and evaluation of any and all literary, political, economic, social, or religious tenets.

"The never-ending search for truth by the open and inquiring mind is a basic necessity for the survival of the democratic way of life. To the fundamental concepts of our democratic tradition, including the freedom to teach or publish the results of honest and competent inquiry, the overwhelming majority of college teachers are deeply devoted. To impose upon them loyalty tests not required of other professions, or for outside nonprofessional bodies to investigate their professional competence or integrity, affects adversely the morale of both college teachers and their students. In institutions where such practices obtain, teachers are being intimidated and students are being led to believe that colleges dare no longer engage in the disinterested pursuit of truth, but must become instruments of propaganda. Phi Beta Kappa is bound to be concerned whenever conditions prevail in our schools and colleges which threaten in such ways the American principle of freedom of teaching.

"The Committee on Qualifications is required by the Society's constitution to inform itself regarding the status and practices of institutions sheltering chapters of Phi Beta Kappa which may

¹ From the "Report of the President of the University [Boston University] for the year July 1, 1948-June 30, 1949, pp. 10-11; presented to the annual meeting of the Board of Trustees of the University, October 18, 1949.

jeopardize the Society's ideals and to report such practices to the Society for appropriate action.

"The Committee feels that at this time it is especially important to call upon all the institutions with which its chapters are associated to withstand the emotional pressure, from whatever quarter, to substitute dogma for critical analysis."¹

THE COMMITTEE ON QUALIFICATIONS AND
THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF PHI BETA
KAPPA

¹ Statement of policy on freedom of teaching, released on June 13, 1949, to the 141 Chapters of Phi Beta Kappa, to the presidents of the institutions where there are Chapters of the Society, and to the presidents of those institutions whose petitions for the establishment of Chapters of the Society were pending. This statement was affirmed by the Phi Beta Kappa Council at its twenty-second triennial meeting, held in Madison, Wisconsin, September 1-3, 1949.

AN INQUIRY INTO ANTI-HIGHBROWISM¹

By ROBERT B. HEILMAN

University of Washington

One of the concerns of the middlebrow and submiddlebrow journals during the present year has been the definition of various levels of browism—high, middle, and low. My own concern, however, is not with identifications and tests, but with some of the attitudes that appear on the different levels, and with the motives that find expression in these attitudes. Specifically I want to consider certain forms of anti-highbrowism, and this consideration will involve some defense of what seems to be a basic highbrow position. I know that there is considerable risk in not only not smiting the highbrow but in suggesting that something may—and indeed must—be said for him. For highbrowism has become almost a standard synonym for un-Americanism, that wonderfully capacious term to which we resort whenever in any way we feel any threat to anything upon which we rely and which it is at all possible to magnify into universal significance—universal, that is, for our small bounded portion of this continent. If not *the* synonym for un-Americanism, perhaps highbrowism is, of various possible synonyms, the most characteristic one. For this word appears, to those who respond only to the most ready-made kind of suggestion, to connote everything that is unpopular, upperclass-conscious, supercilious, opposed to our tradition of the goodness and wisdom of plain people—in a word, undemocratic.

My first line of defense is that, if highbrowism apparently runs counter to one American tradition, to take its part is entirely in accord with another American tradition. For the highbrow is really an underdog. The lowbrow wants to be a middlebrow, but the

¹ Paper presented to the annual joint dinner meeting of the Chapters in Oregon of the American Association of University Professors on April 13, 1949, at Corvallis, Oregon. The Oregon State College Chapter was the host. In attendance were representatives from the University of Oregon (Eugene and Portland), Reed College and Lewis and Clark College.

middlebrow does not want to be a highbrow. The middlebrow is aggressively self-satisfied. Occasionally by accident a lowbrow aims at the highbrow only because he cannot tell highbrow from middlebrow. But this is rare. So the highbrow is alone, a minority, low man on the totem pole, and in danger of becoming a displaced person. Surely the tradition of cheering for the underdog might come into play here. The defender of highbrows, even if he were unconvincing, could then at least be not un-American.

More seriously, it is important to begin to indicate how far this defense of the highbrow is going to go. Primarily, in speaking to fellow members of the American Association of University Professors, I am concerned with academic highbrowism. I want to point out some of the forms which anti-highbrowism takes and which I think are very dangerous to the ideals which I assume animate all of us. A familiar case might be made, namely: that the university is a microcosm and that what is true of it is true of our life generally, so that a defense of academic highbrows becomes a defense of their whole tribe, intramural and extramural. But for the discussion of brow-levels, the university is more than a microcosm. It has a special organic function within the macrocosm: it is, as it were, the dedicated nursery of highbrows. So we are, I think, concerned with something more than a general social truth neatly reduced in scale. The compartment of life into which we are peering is not like every other compartment; it is not a mere sample but must provide a particular example. If I am right in saying that our primary professional business is to be nurses of highbrows, it is necessary that we know formulae and sanitation and don't mistake changelings for legitimate members of the family.

II

Before you get restive or perhaps alarmed over this proposition, which seems to have the black-magic effect of transforming institutions supported by the people into incubators of enemies of the people, let me shift from metaphor to plain prose. By highbrowism I mean the highest degree of unapologetic, unflinching excellence that can be achieved in any field of knowledge—from agriculture to zoology. I mean a devotion to that high truth even

though the truth be difficult, unpopular, unprofitable, unconsoling, unflattering, and entirely out of accord with dominant prejudices. Yet I am speaking here not primarily of a moral fact—the moral fact of courageous adherence to a conviction—but rather of a cast of mind, of the intellectual personality, of the unwillingness to be satisfied with anything less than the best, the most highly refined, the most penetrating and inclusive version of truth permitted by the present state of knowledge and by our inherited wisdom. It is my conviction that some such meaning is implied in the word *highbrow*, and that serious damage is done by our ignoring this possibility and attending almost exclusively to the more commonplace connotations of the word.

By now, I think, I can see you a little more relaxed and, if not convinced, at least relieved. So far you are able to go along with me and even to offer an assurance. "Well, if that is all you mean by highbrowism—well, naturally, we are all for the best. There is nothing to argue about." I am sure that at the level of intention and aspiration we are all together; we are all for highbrowism if it is optimum-ism—a rather horrendous term which, for the sake of having a single term, I risk (*optimism* is unusable because of its association with a low-grade sentimentality). An optimum-ism is, in many ways, a hearty academic reality. Nuclear physics is one of the fields of knowledge in which, in our day, highbrowism is unmistakable. If there were anything less, the field would not exist. No one clamors for Popular Physics or for Fission Made Easy. I hear no calls for Mathematics in Ten Lessons, with a guarantee of satisfaction or your registration fee back. We do not hear relativity called undemocratic, nor do we hear demands that it be so scaled down that every graduate of a tax-supported institution can be given a certificate attesting to his mastery of it. Engineering is not supposed to be made tasty and digestible for Meccano and Erector alumni. In all these fields the best, however inaccessible it may be to many minds, is an absolute standard. In this respect I submit that one of the most highbrow fields in modern education is football; a friend of mine who is a distinguished literary critic insists that it is the only subject which in modern colleges is really well taught. As we all know, football coaches who are sufficiently insensitive to the highbrow are likely to travel widely

or to find what is called a "business connection." In football every other consideration—character building, school spirit, physical training for all—all this, all the statements of belief, all the laudatory clichés, all the familiar slogans are all pretense: the only real standard is a hard, uncompromising excellence.

I repeat my belief that from theoretical highbrowism few will withhold assent. But the fact is that in practice the best is frequently discouraging, impractical, hard, and repellent, and is even likely to seem pretentious and highfalutin. I will note parenthetically that the excellence which seems pretentious and highfalutin will vary from age to age depending upon the preconceptions of a given era: in our own period, with its basic orientation toward science, aesthetic and theological speculations are quite likely to seem bizarre and finicky. Be that as it may, the difficult and apparently inaccessible excellence is always in danger of being whittled down to something popularly attainable—as if second-rate mountain climbers who couldn't make 15,000-foot peaks banded themselves together in an association declaring that those who made a height of 10,000 feet deserved just as much honor as those who went highbrow and got to the top. After a while no one would be able to tell the difference between a 10,000-foot elevation and a 15,000-foot elevation, and there is where the real trouble would start. I think there is some evidence of a dangerous contentment with lesser elevations—a situation predestined to create the kind of mirage in which any 6000-foot Appalachian peak comes to resemble Mt. Everest. We all know the kind of patient who prefers a bedside manner or ready-made pills to highbrow medicine. We know of our occasional tendency for legal study to shrink into a quickie course in "local law" and courtroom practice. In general the medical and legal professions have, I think, succeeded best of all in protecting themselves against low-altitude pressures—that is, against lowbrowism. Yet I have recently heard it charged that bar examinations are "undemocratic"—to my mind a horrifying use of that word. I once heard a very distinguished social scientist complain of the wide infiltration of the social sciences by a low-grade positivism (man-hole-cover counting, as it is often called) which, he pointed out, could be practiced by virtually anybody. I know of at least one university in which graduate theses

in various social sciences are submitted to a member of the English Department—that is, when a willing victim can be found—for him to correct oddities in grammar, spelling, and so forth, that is, to be a sort of fixer of literary traffic tickets. Doubtless for such candidates for highest degrees it would seem unbearably highbrow to demand that their own unfixed English be above reproach. The natural sciences, as I have said, are fairly likely to maintain a high-altitude perspective. Yet I have known of one very large and popular university course in biological science which was contemptuously described, by a first-rate scientist who unhappily had to know about it, as the “ain’t-nature-wonderful” course. As the name makes beautifully clear, a low-grade audience, instead of being made to learn scientific principle, was being gratified by the illusion of mastering a field; yet all it was doing was being charmed at isolated tidbits of spectacular information like so many happy seals in the zoo, snapping up the wonderful little fishes thrown by the keeper. The educational politician who thought up and administered that course may never have used the word *highbrow*. But he should have. He is almost the classic type of the anti-highbrow.

So much for random cases of anti-highbrowism—implied or oblique, it may be, but still showing a human willingness to take a comfortable plateau for an exacting mountain top. To other cases I shall come later. Now to return momentarily to my definition of highbrowism as the spirit of excellence, a spirit which for us university people implies fullness and fineness of knowledge. Keeping this definition in mind, let us take some account of the more familiar, less favorable connotations of the word *highbrow*. As often used, the word describes a certain personal manner: complacency, superciliousness, an intellectual holier-than-thou-ness. Or it may describe an attitude to the materials of study: a quest for the specialized, the rare, the narrow, the difficult, the generally inaccessible. Or it may describe a certain professional manner: doctrinaire insistence, the addiction to special vocabularies, exclusiveness, cultishness. Or finally, it may describe the kind of knowledge possessed and transmitted: the purely theoretical, the elusively speculative, the radically experimental—in a word, all the formulations of truth which may be intolerant of the easy, the

familiar, the popular, the journalistic one-dimensional meaning. All this is very likely to seem affected, condescending, cliquish, patronizing, and hoity-toity, and when a man defiantly cries "You highbrow" he considers himself to be flourishing his sabre in behalf of the honest, the straightforward, the general, the genial, and the wholesome. He may be. I do not deny that there is a problem; I do not deny that the bad sense of the word highbrow describes a reality. The sniffy and the snooty are ever-present actualities, and I am not interested in denying that they should be hooted at and hounded out. I am interested in arguing that it is an oversimplification to consider that the whole duty of democratic man lies in rooting out the sniffy and the snooty. His much more important task is to distinguish between the sense of superiority which is grounded only in substanceless vanity and the sense of superiority which accompanies a real superiority of substance. The real problem is, while attacking a venial flaw, to avoid giving a mortal blow to a basic virtue.

III

When I advanced a "good" meaning for highbrow—the devotee of the highest standard of excellence—I said also that the highest truth may seem repellent, pretentious, and highfalutin. In this fact lies the inevitable linkage between a good highbrowism and a bad highbrowism. I will go further: a bad highbrowism would not exist if it were not for a good highbrowism. A bad highbrowism—for instance, literary affectation—comes, ultimately, from an instinct for excellence; the aspirant may not have what it takes either to understand or achieve excellence, but at least he wants to improve on the commonplace. So if we find in somebody a sense of superiority not accompanied by a real superiority, we have a highbrow as popularly conceived. Yet he is not an autonomous evil; he is a good that has misfired. A bad highbrow is the risk we run in trying to create a good highbrow. Artiness is one of the risks of the quest for art. The pursuit of any good end is likely to come to a bad end: you may seek to create a good administrator, and produce a tyrant. In the realm of the intellect the highbrow is, as one poet put it, speaking of a mathematician, "voyaging strange seas of thought, alone"; when you are looking for

dangerous, distant explorations, you are always in danger of getting someone who simply goes off the deep end. That is one of the prices of knowledge. It is to my mind a negligible price. When the end is uncommon, the danger is freakishness; just as, conversely, when the end is common, the danger is vulgarity.

There are, then, no perfect choices: from the passion for excellence may come the specious, and excellence itself may be adorned by a considerable imperfection of manners. Good highbrowism and bad highbrowism are, I suspect, much like Siamese twins: you can't have one without having the other. But I will not push that theoretical issue; I have wanted merely to emphasize their interrelationship strongly enough to indicate the dangers of anti-highbrowism. As I have said, it is a real problem to distinguish good and bad highbrowism. But since I do not think we pay enough attention to that problem, and since I think that our middlebrowism or lowbrowism may be pretty indiscriminate in lashing out against the enemy, I want simply to make a few notes on the working of our resentment at highbrows. In this resentment we may honestly feel that we are opposed to the pretentious: but while the empty and highsounding are pretentious, the fact is that a new insight often seems pretentious too, and that even an old insight may, to any given modernity, seem pretentious. In other words, pretentiousness is not always a clear objective fact, an unmistakable evil; it may have its existence, not in the thing itself, but in the observer's own point of view, in his pre-established habits of mind. If such a confusion is possible—if the apparently highbrow may be either an undesirable objective reality or a projection of a subjective state—then the virtuous attack upon a bad highbrowism may *in effect* be an attack upon a good highbrowism, upon an unrelenting standard which does not permit one to be easy upon oneself. My guess is that in many middlebrows there is a large need for a kind of firm self-examination that will determine what the real object of attack is and what the real motives of attack are.

This is not, however, a hunt for villains. There is very little overt opposition to good highbrowism. There is very little conscious, deliberate use of opposition to bad highbrowism as a technique for putting down good highbrows. The problem is more

complex, and for this reason: what is chiefly involved in anti-highbrowism is self-deception. The motives are buried in the subconscious. With honest indignation the good man cries "Highbrow" and does not know what he does. Anti-highbrowism becomes a happy defense mechanism. It is wonderfully acceptable to the prejudices of a middlebrow world, and at the same time it is so convenient a way of dismissing the more difficult, the more demanding, and the less flattering. It makes a virtue of one's own love of ease. By it one forgives oneself for stopping with the purely popular book, the sentimental music, the simple idea, the random congeniality—in a word, for forgetting all about those 15,000-foot peaks. One becomes a voice of the Plain People—calm, solid, sensible, having a comfortable picnic way down below. Picnics in the valley are all right—except when they become the principal achievement of professional mountain climbers.

The Plain People dogma is doubtless bound to be widespread in a democracy. Doubtless it serves, in various ways, a good end. But the dogma may become a dodge, and that is what we must be concerned about. If it becomes a regular dodge in the university world, it is dangerous. The university, I have said, is a dedicated nursery of highbrows, and I can think of no more catastrophic event in a university than a mass movement—and it would be essentially a *mass* movement—against highbrowism. I don't think there is such a movement. But I do think there are little ripples and twitches and eddies here and there which, if all their quiverings got synchronized, might swell into something very like a movement. It may not hurt, therefore, to spend a little time noting some of these incipient movements, these little motions, in our school world.

There is, for instance, the rather widespread phenomenon of good-joe-ism, which is the defense mechanism of those whose gifts are chiefly social. The implied dogma is that a really sound faculty member ought to be as competent in the poolroom as he is in the library stacks. This is a nonsequitur; there is no reason under heaven why a fine economist or chemist or historian should be a good joe. If he happens to be one, pleasant enough; but the chances are equal that he will happen not to be one. If he turns out not to have social gifts, we are very likely to record for

ourselves a great store of moral credit for tolerating him, or to encourage him to stay in or go to some other place where we won't have to tolerate him at all.

Another way of discounting or immobilizing the highbrow is to call him "arrogant." I know two possessors of fine minds—at least one of them a capacious, seminal thinker—who are pursued about the academic world by whispered charges of arrogance, and one of whom has so far had a career far short of his deserts. I need hardly say that I don't like arrogance as a personal trait more than anybody else; but I am prepared to argue that it is largely irrelevant in a consideration of intellectual quality and that an apparently moral concern about it may therefore become a smoke screen for something else. The irony of it is that one of the men to whom I refer is, in my opinion, not arrogant at all, and the charge of arrogance often reflects the limited abilities of his critics and their desire to find a way of avoiding making comparisons between him and themselves. He is a person of immense learning, and his assumption is that university men are concerned with learning and like to talk about intellectual problems. When he acts on this assumption, he is always a little appalled to find colleagues regarding him, with considerable shock, as a kind of monster.

Another case: Some time ago a famous American university lost a very distinguished scholar—one whom, I learned later, it had made no effort to retain. Then I received this comment from a colleague of the departed scholar: "In that department they can always dig up some ex-athlete who is a good fellow, who can hold his liquor, and who doesn't know so much that he will embarrass everybody else." There is anti-highbrowism in the halls of the mighty. What is one to expect in academic humble cottages?

For the next case history I shift to a lesser state university—one in various parts of which, however, there is a strong sense of values. One of the science departments in this institution had a head who can only be described as an oaf (whose antics, it may be added, were a mild source of cynical delight to the more discerning part of the community). Generally he staffed his department with people whose achievements were not likely to be disconcerting to him. After a time, however, I became aware of a colleague of his whose intelligence was obvious and whose scientific accomplish-

ments were demonstrable. Upon making an inquiry into this anomaly, I was informed by a colleague in science, "Oh, that head always keeps one good man in his department to get the academic business done."

IV

To return now to the major leagues: highbrowism at its best is creativity—the discovery of new knowledge and insights, or the refinement of old. The anti-highbrowism inspired by creativity takes two forms. One is a preference for the second-rate, for the mechanical repetition of old techniques, and a corresponding discomfort with and shying away from exciting new work. (This is the opposite of the fallacy of glorifying anything because it is new.) I shall never forget a heavy scholar who in a review expressed his horror of a new monograph which suggested that there was a great deal of error in many studies of a romantic poet whom I shall call Quackenbush. "Why," said this reviewer in effect, "if this book is true, the foundations of Quackenbush scholarship are shaken." He could think of no more awful catastrophe. Here we have anti-highbrowism in the form of entrenched scholarly interests. Again, if a university decides that in the realm of knowledge it should have creators as well as custodians and prods its faculty toward productive scholarship, it is amazing how many of the faculty begin to insist upon classroom work as the sole criterion of faculty value. Everyone is sure that he does pretty well as a teacher, and he is prone to develop the suspicion that a good researcher or critical or creative writer is likely to be a pretty irresponsible fellow in the classroom.

Then there is the story of a man of remarkable scholarly mind—one of the finest highbrows I have known or known of—who was being "looked over" by a leading American university. He accepted an invitation to deliver the public lecture which allows the representatives of the prospective employer to judge everything from mentality to manners. He spoke with learning, with brilliance, with wisdom; it was a scholarly and philosophic discourse. He used no manuscript and no notes. This performance evidently terrified his hosts; nothing further was said about his joining them permanently. My personal secret agent reported unequivocally

cally, "He was too good." This kind of anti-highbrowism is not only sad but ominous—ominous in what I believe is its typicality. The man of exceptional distinction evokes something like fear: he may not respect authority, he will make up his own mind, he may not "fit in," he may upset the apple cart at any time. If he is sophisticated enough to sense the situation he must, in job-hunting days, subject himself to a kind of intellectual contraception, so that he will not seem too fertile, "too good." So we stick to safety-first middlebrows. In this flight from excellence there is an allied phenomenon almost equally familiar: the first-rate intellectual is often the most lonely figure on the campus.

Again, I have some feeling that our perennial disparagement of the ivory tower is in essence an aspect of anti-highbrowism. When we turn the battering-ram of contempt upon the ivory tower, we seem to be assaulting the offish, the uppity, the rarified cloud-cuckooland of escapists. But the tower is a high place, and properly conceived it is a high place for high thinking. If we demolish it, we do a great disservice to the intellectual life of man. It is all very well to be down to earth, and to be rattling around in the market place, and to be consumed in activities that may be called "practical." But here we are simply applying thought, if indeed any thought is involved at all; we are not thinking. Need we praise thinking? There is, of course, an ivory tower which merely houses a secluded idleness, a fugitive and cloistered unvirtue; and there are also innocent, merely misguided opponents of the better kind of ivory tower. But there is a kind of professional anti-ivory-tower-ism which seems to me to reflect a hostility to any kind of abstract, reflective, speculative thinking; to bang away at the ivory tower is the defense mechanism of the man who can't or won't think and is unnerved by thinking, anybody's thinking.

These manifestations of anti-highbrowism all occur in professors' evaluations of each other. Other manifestations occur in professors' dealing with students, and in passing I want only to make a footnote or two on this kind of faculty foible. There is, for instance, the hyper-friendly, great good-fellow teacher, who keeps telling the students what fine pals they and he are. Friendly love, as Bacon observed, perfecteth mankind; but a backslaphappy boys' club spirit is not going to further excellence of headwork.

The good fellow, who is far more afraid of being thought pedantic than of being thought callow, also likes to tell his classes that he really doesn't know very much and certainly won't expect them to know anything he doesn't know. The trouble is that the person who insists that he isn't a highbrow in the bad sense of the word is likely not to be a highbrow in any sense of the word. This type is fond of pointing out, also, that as for such and such an examination that somebody gave, he couldn't pass it himself. This tactic reassures all those who have difficulty in passing any examinations and may even frighten more timid colleagues into the use of less rigorous testing standards. The last of these lower middlebrow habits which I shall mention is that of forever harping on the "needs" of the students—needs which are understood to be authoritative, variable with respect to times and places and persons, essential in value judgments in education, and useful in preventing a tyrannical highbrow faculty from imposing its deadening will upon youth eagerly intent upon self-cultivation. Within the narrow limits of my own experience, an outburst of vague pontifical talk about needs is generally a prelude to lowering standards so that students can do just what they want to do without being hampered by any considerations either of the more profound aspects of human need or of the worth-whileness of what they want.

I have used the phrase "within the limits of my own experience," for I must make clear what my perspective is. No polls, no straw votes, no searching questionnaires have provided the data for these remarks. Perhaps the "cases" which I cite are marginal, perhaps my own observations are unrepresentative. I am not quite willing to believe that they are, though I should be glad to believe that they are. I am happy to report that one university, which I have cited here for its terrified rejection of one highbrow whom it might have had for the asking, turned around and with a fine abandon gambled on a noteworthy highbrow in another field. I know, of course, that, as many of you must be thinking, there are some colleges and universities which to the best of their ability seek only the most talented men they can find. If I were really bent on carping, I should protest that often the conception of talent is too easygoing—too quantitative, too conventional, too narcissistic. But I am not really in a carping mood. So I shall argue only that

the attitudes which I have cited, whatever their frequency, are still more frequent than they ought to be. In fact, in so far as we can detect any evidence of the feeling that a highbrow is a kind of cultural second-story worker intent upon robbing us of some solid, necessary values, and contemptuous of our defenselessness, we have a potentially dangerous situation. At this point I want to risk solemnity for just a moment. Such anti-highbrowism as I have described seems to me to represent one of the weaknesses of democracy. Those of us who want to save democracy and its virtues owe it to ourselves not to shirk the facts, not to regard democracy as achieved perfection, but to maintain a sufficient awareness of the imperfections to which it, like any other human system, is liable. One of the most disquieting of the phenomena of democracy is a suspicion of various kinds of superiority, a desire to ignore it, or at worst to ridicule or undermine it; the converse of this is the misuse of democracy to glorify the commonplace or even the meretricious. Some of this misguided debunking and mistaken raising-on-high may always be with us. It is most alarming when it creeps even into the university, whose very business it is to identify and depress the commonplace, and to strengthen and exalt the excellent. It is very bad for democracy if excellence of mind is compelled to be apologetic and to curry favor by not seeming too bright, too inquisitive, too incisive. The worst blow that can be struck against a democracy—and yet in the very nature of an equalitarian order a probable blow if we are not always aware of the likelihood and on guard against it—is for standards of excellence to be identified with exclusiveness, and therefore to be considered “undemocratic.” Then the doctrine of equality leads merely to leveling, and permanence and stability are threatened. For the true highbrows of today are the guides and the legislators of tomorrow.

V

Now finally I want to look at several other examples of academic anti-highbrowism—those in the field of literature and the arts. I feel that heretofore I have been mild and tentative and have hardly done more than shake a not very firm finger. From now on I am inclined to be authoritative, disagreeable, and determined in

spanking my victims soundly. For I know of nothing quite so dangerous as the teacher of literature or man of letters who speaks of literary highbrows as though they were a common and easily identified evil whom all men of good sense try to eradicate. Anti-highbrowism within the realm of literature seems to me to be a betrayal of everything to which the serious and mature writer and teacher are dedicated, for it is in effect an attack upon excellence—excellence which is the only justification of artistic expression. Literary anti-highbrowism does not, of course, take so blunt a form as this. In some ways it makes a good thing of being vague and undefined. It operates casually in terms of a dubious assumption that we all know what an unostentatious, sound, respectable goodness is. Under such an operating procedure anybody can take his own undisciplined preferences as an adequate standard of goodness; the result is the elevation of the commonplace to a status of critical infallibility, and the release of the mediocre from the critical examination which would reveal its shortcomings. We need always to be repeating the critical act which identifies the good. In its oppositions, anti-highbrowism is always very self-righteously against something that looks reprehensible. It is against lunatic fringes—but lunatic fringes, I suspect, are part of the price one must pay in order to have the arts free to explore to the uttermost the utility of all possible techniques. To be against lunatic fringes is one method of keeping things just the way they are. Anti-highbrowism is against the difficult, and here its opposition is likely to conceal both historical naïveté and sheer resistance to strenuous self-exertion. The unfamiliar is difficult in every generation; with the passage of time, the mystery is lessened, and one knows how to approach a given kind of art. Yet in another sense the good is always difficult; Shakespeare is the most difficult of English poets. The difficult is rewarding, but the reward is not accessible to the languid and the half-awake. Again, the anti-highbrow is against cults and cultishness—the esoteric and disdainful little societies, gods private, and public not admitted. The question, however, is whether this is all there is to cults and whether some essentially noncultish phenomena may not, to the undiscerning, look cultish. The new technique, the new skill, the new excellence—destined in time to

gain acceptance—do not win assent easily; for a while they secure the devotion of only the passionate few, who, in their defensiveness, may be overly enthusiastic and too restrictive in their views of other forms and methods. Ergo, a cult, and a consequent rise of uncritical democratism. Actually, then, anti-cultism may be a disguised crusade of the ordinary against the extraordinary. Again, anti-highbrowism is against the precious—that is, the very fastidious, the over-refined. It seems to me that the more subtle, the more fine-grained, the more perceptive a work is, the more it is in danger of being called precious; thus it is relegated to a limbo of specialization and affectation where it can be comfortably ignored. Indeed, *precious* is the label likely to be attached to any specimen of “quality writing,” as literature is called at those low levels where writing is regarded merely as a trade which if properly followed can make one as prosperous as painless dentistry can. The opponent of preciousity is fairly likely to plump for the sentimental, the obvious, the solid, the hearty, for something of quite limited survival value, and to call it “central” or “human” or “whole.” I hasten to add that, I think, he may do this with the best intentions in the world. I am not pointing at sinister characters in the main, but at innocent ones who, I think, may not suspect the damage they can do. They want it good and simple and easily available, and they do not question that these coexist with excellence. This situation is very bad, but for the most part, I think, such anti-highbrowism is an honest grassroots affair. Grass is fine, but its functions are limited. The big difficulty is that grass roots won’t grow oaks.

I have a final complaint about all of you who are not in the field of literature: the complaint is that you are not nearly hard enough in your demands upon the practitioners in literature. You share the responsibility for highpower literary lowbrowism by being willing to be content with second-rate and third-rate writing. One of the most fascinating ironies of academic life is the way in which men in one field, even highbrows in one field, are satisfied, even happy, to be lowbrows in other fields. It seems comradely, affable, and well bred to know as little as possible, and therefore to have only minimal standards, in a colleague’s field. I know of one well publicized social scientist who would gleefully announce

that he never got more than a D in English and who, for all I know, felt that this record improved his mastery of social science. The result of such attitudes is that a comfortable reciprocal low-browism has almost grown into the common social currency of university life. Under this code it becomes bad form to know one's way around an alien field; the best highbrow I have ever known is always arousing the indignation of colleagues by discussing the state of learning in *their* fields. This is presumptuous—a clear violation of all the decencies. Now what I am reproaching non-English people for is for not violating the decencies more regularly and emphatically. All I would like is that you unashfully apply to literature the same high standards that you apply in your own fields. It is distressing to consider what would happen if the easy genial tolerance of third-rate magazine and rental-library writing were also applied in other areas of human endeavor. If you accepted in home economics what you accept in literature, you would have at least chronic indigestion and at worst ptomaine poisoning. If you accepted in civil engineering what you are willing to accept in literature, most of you would sooner or later be dead from prolonged immersion in the streams that the bridges are supposed to take you over. What I want to insist upon, as my final word on literature, is that the tolerance of mediocre writing has far worse dangers, if less evident ones, than the tolerance of bad cuisines and bad bridges. For if we feed ourselves on writing that does not nourish, and try to support ourselves on books that cannot sustain us, we risk the starvation of the spirit and its drowning in the floods of the commonplace.

VI

As a final gesture of self-protection I must state explicitly one caution which I hope has been implicit throughout these paragraphs: I am not defending social snobbery, fancy façades, high-toned phoniness, or two-story fronts for one-story houses. On the contrary I am trying to defend real superiority, whatever its exterior; excellence, whether it seems plain or fancy; and elevation which does not stoop—in a word, two-story houses even though the community has gone wild over cottages and ranch-style. My

point is that an attack upon the former often becomes, in effect, an attack upon the latter, because we do not make sharp enough distinctions among highbrows. For some reason the highbrow has become the kind of villain that easily upsets people and blurs their powers of distinction. Perhaps there have been historical reasons for this negativism. But by now we should realize that deflating the wrong kind of highbrow is not enough and it may be dangerous. The real problem is to create the right kind and to give him our entire respect.

Your after-dinner speaker, who is supposed to be a wit, has turned out to be a moralist. Perhaps, since we are all in an evangelical profession, you will forgive him. The most he can say for himself is that he has not presented a program for action and not demanded the heavy labor of motions, seconds, discussions, and votes. His diagnosis, even though it should seem entirely sound, does not demand formal action by an overburdened association. For the situation described, as well as any alterations in it, has little to do with official decisions but represents an accumulation of private convictions. The attention of the organization would be called for, I should suppose, only if a faculty ran into a situation such as that created by a university president who wanted to check the level of highbrowism in his faculty. What he did was ask all of his teachers to send in to him a list of all the books they had read during the last year. If such a thing were to happen, perhaps our association would then be called upon to assert the principles of faculty freedom to read and think in private. That would be admirable. For it would be, in effect, a public defense of the ivory tower.

VALUE JUDGMENTS AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

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There has been increasing dissatisfaction in recent years, both within and outside the academic community, over the apparent failure of the social sciences to keep abreast of developments in the physical sciences, and to deal effectively with dynamic changes requiring social action. In a world calling for an increasing number and variety of decisions within the realm of social policy, the social scientist—like the United States in the community of nations—finds himself unwittingly thrust into a position of responsibility and leadership. Despite his protestations of incapacity, *qua* scientist, he is called upon by an impatient world to be the architect, as well as the engineer, of the good society.

Unfortunately, or otherwise, the social scientist—ever since his emergence as the custodian of a separate discipline—has insisted upon two things: (1) that he *is* a scientist; (2) that, *as* a scientist, he has neither tool nor method for selecting ends or goals, *i. e.*, for making “value judgments.” Now, under the pressure of urgency, he is torn between Scylla and Charybdis—between the futility of sitting on the sidelines while society gropes for valid ends, and the apparent necessity of renouncing his methodological faith.

It is not surprising, in view of the urgency, to find an increasing number of the social science fraternity attempting to steer both courses at once—to participate in the formulation of social goals while carefully protecting their status as scientists, and professing more fervently than ever their abhorrence of anything remotely resembling a “value judgment.” Such, for example, is the position taken in a recent article in this *Bulletin*,¹ which reiterates the classical position while suggesting two not-entirely-novel methods of

¹ Robert Bierstedt, “Social Science and Social Policy,” *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, Volume 34, No. 2, (Summer, 1948), pp. 310-19.

escape from the predicament. These suggestions are: (1) the guiding and expediting of scientific research into the socially most useful channels (departing from the purist conception that science is indifferent to the ends which it serves); (2) open acknowledgment that the scientist can also be a citizen and thus prescribe goals (presumably while keeping his scientific fingers crossed).

These propositions indicate that the social scientist's heart is in the right place. But they represent little, if any, progress over the time-honored thesis that under the proper division of labor, "society" sets the goals, by some intuitive or arbitrary process of its own, while the social scientist looks on—albeit with a jaundiced eye and a dim view—impatient to use his rational techniques in the implementation of an irrational goal.

To one without any preconceptions in the matter—the proverbial Man from Mars—this *reductio ad absurdum* calls for considerable explanation in order to be comprehensible. To the social scientist, it is a familiar and fundamental article of faith, not to be challenged on pain of professional ostracism. This credo is restated with remarkable vigor and clarity as follows:

...sociology...is a science. It is a science or it is nothing. And in order to be a science it must diligently avoid all pronouncements of an ethical character. As a science it cannot answer questions of value. It can have no traffic with normative statements because there is no logic of the normative. It can deal, as can the other sciences, only with questions of fact, with propositions, with statements capable of being true or false. It cannot deal with questions of good or bad, better or worse, right or wrong, or any question at all containing the word "ought." The sociologist, in company with his brother scientists, has taken seriously the famous remark of Jeremy Bentham, that the word "ought" ought never to be used, except in saying it ought never to be used. . . . The scientific method as such provides no technique for answering questions of value, for determining ultimate ends, for weighing the merits of an ethical or political controversy, for deciding what, if anything, ought to be done as a matter of social policy.¹

The foregoing statement—which is, of course, a value judgment of the first order—recapitulates the orthodox position on the relationship of social science to social policy. It is complete, final,

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 312-13.

categorical; it ascribes an unbridgeable gap between science and policy, between means and ends, between "what is" and "what ought to be." It does this not on practical grounds, not on grounds of the inadequacy of knowledge in the social sciences, but in terms of a fundamental principle—the proposition that value judgments are categorically different from other kinds of judgment in a manner precluding their rational or scientific determination.

It is the burden of this paper that the orthodox position is essentially false; that it rests upon an unwarranted and outmoded dichotomy between means and ends, between "facts" and "values"; that it confuses issues which concern the achievements of science with issues pertaining to scientific methodology; and that it is inconsistent with newer developments in epistemology and metaphysics.¹ Convincing demonstration of this is impossible within the bounds of a short paper; the framework of the argument can, however, be indicated.

II

The issues in this controversy may be posed in terms of four questions: (1) what is science? (2) are the social studies "sciences?" (3) what are value judgments? (4) can "social scientists" legitimately make value judgments?

In its original, etymological, and fundamental sense, the term "science" signifies the systematic acquisition of knowledge. Questions as to the ultimate nature and validity of knowledge are epistemological ones which ordinarily do not concern the scientific investigator; in the present discussion they are dealt with only indirectly. The following is a typical definition of science, taken from the New Century Dictionary:

SCIENCE: Knowledge, as of facts or principles; knowledge gained by systematic study; . . . also a particular branch of knowledge; esp., a branch of knowledge or study dealing with a body of facts or truths systematically arranged and showing the operation of general laws (as, the *science* of botany; the mathematical *sci-*

¹ These developments cannot be explored herein. Two valuable references are Iredell Jenkins, "What Is a Normative Science?" in *The Journal of Philosophy*, XLV, No. 12 (June 3, 1948), 309-32; and C. West Churchman, *The Theory of Experimental Inference* (Macmillan, 1948).

ences); also, systematized knowledge; esp., systematized knowledge of the facts and laws of the physical or material world.

In order to clarify certain issues, it is desirable to consider four main aspects of science: its purpose, its scope, its methodology, and the reliability of its findings. For simplicity, the implied questions and their abbreviated answers under these headings are submitted as propositions in outline form:

- (1) *Purpose*: the acquisition of knowledge
 - a. for its own sake
 - b. for possible use
- (2) *Scope* (subject matter included): actually or potentially universal
- (3) *Methodology*: pragmatic (*i. e.*, any method achieving valid results)
- (4) *Reliability of findings* (exactness of knowledge achieved): varies from discipline to discipline, and from stage to stage in the development of a given discipline or subject area

The *purpose* of science, according to the orthodox or "purist" conception, is "knowledge for its own sake." But if the acquisition of knowledge be admitted as the purpose of science, then the question arises: "what knowledge?" The traditional or purist answer leaves the scientist with no logical starting point for his investigation. Shall he count the number of stones in China, the number of trees in Oregon, or (to use a familiar sociological cliché) the number of privies in Pittsburgh? Each of those studies would pose interesting problems in methodology, and if extended to other areas and performed on an annual basis, could be partially and multiply correlated by means of the most modern scientific techniques.

But this is not typically the orientation of science. Since the resources available to scientists are limited, they do not devote their energies to trivial, irrelevant, or frivolous projects; rather, they regularly channel their research in directions which are actually, or with a reasonable degree of potentiality, significant to human affairs and purposes. This is especially true of modern science, which is much more highly organized and "rationalized" than the often fortuitous explorations of the early pioneers. While

it still holds that science seeks a disinterested (*i. e.*, truthful) description of the universe, those aspects of the universe selected for study and description are the ones which are most significant and meaningful to human beings.

Inasmuch as all knowledge is potentially useful (although a rough "marginal utility" test is required in its pursuit), attempts to distinguish between the "pure" and the "applied" sciences are largely pointless. All knowledge is knowledge, and all knowledge can actually or potentially be put to use. Stated in other terms, all science is "descriptive" or "pure," and the act of using or applying it does not change its descriptive, pure, or scientific nature. To be sure, the use of science for particular purposes, such as the building of an airplane or the curing of disease, may require recombination of existing, or the development of new, knowledge in a number of different areas, but all such knowledge is still "science" in the basic sense of the term. Likewise, as we shall argue later, the "normative" sciences are—in principle—"descriptive," "pure," or "positive," in the same manner as all other science.

The *scope* of science is, by assumption, not limited to any particular subject matter or area of investigation. All the phenomena of the universe—physical, chemical, biological, psychological, sociological, ethical, spiritual, *ad infinitum*—are logically and properly within the purview of orderly, systematic, or scientific investigation. For reasons of specialization and division of labor, science has been subdivided into many subjects or areas, although the scope of the individual sciences is by no means sharply delimited. But there is no a priori reason for differentiating between the subject matter of (say) physics and political science, on the ground that the one is, and the other is not, science. The "facts" which science observes, collects, classifies, correlates, and evaluates—in its process of acquiring knowledge—may run the gamut from the structure of a leaf to that of society, or from the behavior of the atom to that of the human mind. A "fact" may thus be a physical structure or event, a social institution, an idea, a personal preference, or a categorical imperative.

Turning to the question of *methodology*, it is again pertinent to quote a definition:

Scientific method is a collective term denoting the various processes by the aid of which the sciences are built up. In a wide sense, any mode of investigation by which scientific or other impartial and systematic knowledge is acquired is called a scientific method.¹

A distinction is made between *logical* and *technical* (or technological) methods in science. Technical methods are methods of manipulating, measuring, and controlling the phenomena under investigation to permit their observation in a fruitful manner. Technical methods vary widely from one field to another, and have been largely responsible for the substantial progress made in the physical sciences. Nevertheless, their employment is not prerequisite to the scientific status, as such, of a particular discipline or subject area.

The *logical* methods, on the other hand, are the same in all sciences wherever applied. These are classified into two main interdependent groups: (1) mental activities common to all sciences; (2) the specific or distinct methods of reaching scientific conclusions. These are listed in outline form:

- I. Mental activities common to all sciences
 1. Observation
 - a. Bare observation (phenomena not under control of observer)
 - b. Experiment (phenomena under control of observer)
 2. Analysis and synthesis
 3. Imagination, supposition, and idealization
 4. Inference
 5. Comparison and analogy
- II. Specific methods of reaching judgments or conclusions
 1. Classification
 2. Genetic or evolutionary method
 3. Simple inductive methods (difference, agreement, residues, concomitant variation, agreement and difference)
 4. Statistical method
 5. Deductive-inductive method

It is impossible here to discuss this classification in detail; but two significant observations may be made. The first is that

¹ This definition, and the outline following, is taken from the article "Scientific Method," in *Encyclopedia Britannica* (1941), XX, 127-33.

there is no escape, in any science, from the problem of forming "judgments" or inferences from available information or "facts." This suggests that if values are facts, then "value judgments" are no different in principle from other judgments made by science. Secondly, all of the logical methods—which might be said to be the soul of scientific method—are applicable to all fields of knowledge. Scientific method in the logical sense is common to all science; scientific *technology* is differentiated according to the requirements and possibilities of particular branches of science. It is interesting to note that *control* over observed phenomena—often cited as providing a crucial distinction between the methods of the physical sciences and those of the social sciences—is neither essential nor relevant to the possibility of developing an *exact* science. Astronomy, one of the most exact of the physical sciences, permits (thus far!) no control whatsoever over the observed phenomena; no amount of technical equipment can convert bare observation into a controlled experiment. Nor does the nonhuman, inanimate character of the data afford any guarantee of the exactness of a science; meteorology and geology, both in the physical science category, have much in common with the social sciences so far as exactness of results is concerned.

Thus, on the basis of methodological considerations we find nothing to indicate that economics, sociology, the social sciences in general, or even the so-called "normative" sciences are excluded from scientific status. The phenomena of the physical world, of the biological world, the world of the mind, or that of human society are all part of the structure of reality, and as such are susceptible of orderly, systematic, and scientific efforts to study and interpret them. This view is supported by modern classifications of the sciences, which uniformly include the whole gamut of man's systematic efforts to understand the universe.

The controversial status of the social sciences stems not from considerations of purpose, scope, or method, but rather from questions concerning the exactness or reliability of their findings. The achievements of the physical sciences in discovering exact and reliable laws and principles which are directly and effectively applicable to the real world, and which permit successful prediction and control, are so well known as to require no elaboration. It is

this certainty and reliability of their findings which have earned such popular respect for the physical sciences, and which have, in fact, given the term "science" its distinctive meaning in the popular mind. The findings of the social sciences, on the other hand, have been at best tentative, hypothetical, and incomplete, either for purposes of describing social processes or for their direction and control. As a consequence, these disciplines are frequently charged with not being sciences at all, or at best, with "lagging behind" the physical sciences in a manner suggestive of slothfulness if not downright incompetence.

Now, it is true that no science, at any moment of time, can be said to be "complete," and every science at the frontiers of its investigations is partial, tentative, and less than perfectly reliable. Nevertheless, the physical sciences, in general, have long since demonstrated a degree of exactness and reliability, even in the face of incompleteness, which the social sciences give little indication of achieving in the visible future. The reasons are not difficult to find. The inexactness of the social sciences, and a fortiori of normative science, are not merely a matter of inadequate methodology, but more significantly of the quantitative complexity, qualitative heterogeneity, and essential imponderability of the subject matter with which these sciences deal. To state that an adequate methodology would solve the problem is largely to beg the question. To be sure, the only hope for scientific progress in these fields is the legitimate assumption that improved procedures and much additional labor will resolve successive problems. But to assume that the social sciences ever can or "ought" to be "exact" sciences is to ignore the nature of their subject matter. And to assume that "perfect knowledge" is the only alternative to "no knowledge"—either as an epistemological concept or as a guide to action—is *reductio ad absurdum*. Whatever the terminology adopted to describe the social studies, it is the position taken herein that they have the capacity both to acquire systematic knowledge and to make value judgments, and hence to deal directly with questions of social policy.

Before leaving the problem of methodology it is desirable to dispose of two important but common confusions. The first concerns the inclusion, within the concept of the "scientific method,"

of what might be called the "scientific attitude." The norms of impartiality, freedom from bias, objectivity, and the like, are obviously necessary standards or qualifications for investigation in any scientific field, but they can hardly be said to be methodological tools or procedures. The kind of "objectivity" in question is not the property of any particular subject or area of study; certainly there has been at least as much passion, partisanship, and bias observable in the history of the natural sciences as in the social sciences (witness the experience of Copernicus, Galileo, Pasteur, *et al.*). Ideological vested interests—regardless of their particular relationship to material, cultural, or religious interests—have always been a barrier to scientific progress; but science has not therefore abandoned its purpose. It is this problem of making secure the dispassionate search for truth, regardless of the vested interests which might be disturbed thereby, which gave rise to the original concept of *Wertfreiheit*, or "freedom from considerations of value." But the norm or standard of impartiality during the course of scientific investigation is quite separate from the proposition that there can be no normative science—a science whose task it is to study and classify values. Yet the concept of *Wertfreiheit*, which was enthusiastically taken over from the physical sciences into the social sciences, has been used indiscriminately as a slogan to support at least three other separate, and unwarranted, propositions: (1) that research ought not to be directed toward particular ends; (2) that no scientist ought ever to recommend policy; and (3) that there can be no normative science.

A second confusion often in evidence concerns the respective rôles of the rational and the empirical approaches to knowledge. This simple methodological dichotomy is not now accepted as valid; nevertheless, it is desirable to take it at its traditional face value and see what bearing it has on the orthodox position in the value-judgment controversy. In the traditional sense indicated, the rational method is identical with logic—the principles and process of reaching valid conclusions from given premises or assumptions. Logic, according to this view, can only manipulate, not supply, original data. But this is as true in the realm of the physical sciences as it is in the realm of ethics. It is the task of the empirical method, so conceived, in any science to supply logic with

its raw materials—the original data or “facts of life” in the real world. Thus, the oft-repeated statement that “there is no logic of the normative” is a meaningless, irrelevant, or incorrect statement, depending upon its intent. It is incorrect if intended to impeach the principles of logic when applied to the field of values. It is irrelevant and meaningless if intended to say that logic cannot do what it does not purport to do, *i. e.*, furnish original information as to values. And it is a *non sequitur* to state that science cannot deal with value problems merely because *one* of its methodological tools is alone inadequate to deal with them.

III

We turn now to a brief consideration of the nature of values and the process of value judgment. We take the position that values are part of the structure of reality; that values are not man-made, but man-discovered; that new values are discovered by new experience, and thus become *knowledge*; that those values which “ought” to be preferred constitute a particular class of values within a known value system; and that these can be determined and described by means of the same broad techniques that are employed in the acquisition of other kinds of knowledge within the subject matter of the social sciences.

For purposes of convenience, rather than principle, it is desirable to distinguish between ethical values and other classes of value, such as aesthetic and religious values. Ethical values are those values which pertain to conduct, *i. e.*, those values which constitute the ends or purposes of behavior. It is with ethical values that this discussion is concerned; hence the qualifying term “ethical” will be understood throughout the discussion. Moreover, the discussion begins with values for the individual, later taking up the question of social values.

In order further to develop the position taken herein, values are classified into three degrees: (1) *actual* values; (2) *preferred* values; (3) *preferable* values. These are not mutually exclusive, but rather successively delimited terms. An actual value may be tentatively defined as any object of desire on the part of a conscious organism. Thus, any value is a *relationship*, and in order to exist,

must be actually known or understood by a desiring organism. Particular values in this broad category may take many forms; they may, for example, represent a pleasurable biological, emotional, or intellectual experience, or some combination of these. A particular value may be simple or complex: the permutations and combinations of subsidiary values composing any particular value are frequently so numerous as to defy analysis. Whatever the specific content of a particular value, the basic test of its existence is its tendency to stimulate or produce purposive behavior—behavior calculated to achieve or “realize” the value. Actual values may thus, for our purposes, simply be defined as possible ends or goals known to an organism capable of purposive action.

Preferred values are one step nearer to a true norm. These are defined as values which actually result in purposive behavior. That is, a preferred value is one which, in a given situation, is actually selected from among a number of alternatives for implementation by purposive conduct. A *preferable* value, finally, is one which, in a given situation, *ought* to be selected for implementation by purposive action.

The traditional or orthodox view, expressed in the quotation at the beginning of this paper, has always agreed that positive and preferred values, as defined herein, are properly subject to scientific study and analysis. History, inductive economics, sociology, and especially psychology and cultural anthropology have devoted much time and effort to the observation and classification of values actually known and preferred by individuals and groups. But the traditional view takes the position that there can be no such thing as a *normative* science, *i.e.*, a science whose task it is to determine and describe *preferable* values.

Before stating the basis for the determination of preferable values, it is desirable to review briefly, along familiar lines, the process by which values originate and come to be preferred. We shall take the position that all values have their original manifestations in the individual, and that values are discovered by experience, not by logic working in a vacuum. For the sake of simplicity rather than accuracy, we shall assume that man alone is a conscious, purposive, end-seeking organism, and that therefore the value problem is nonexistent for lower forms of life.

At a very primitive level in the development of man, crude experiences of pleasure and pain, *i. e.*, biological values, constitute the initial, primordial values. A prehistoric man, witnessing for the first time the aftermath of a forest fire, and picking up a red-hot ember, does not philosophically utter the words *de gustibus non est disputandum*. He drops the ember without debate. The value, or objective, of avoiding the experience of being burnt (at least in this fashion) has become for him a new end or goal of activity. The source of the new value was novel experience. But in order for the experience to be meaningful, there is presupposed the *capacity* on the part of the individual to respond to the experience in a meaningful fashion. Biological man, as a part of the structure of reality, is so constituted that certain experiences are painful to him, and their avoidance becomes a goal of his purposive behavior; the obvious corollary is true for pleasurable experience. Biological values, like all values, are part of "the facts of life," and are to be discovered, accepted, and dealt with in the same manner as science deals with other facts of the universe.

It is unnecessary here to recapitulate the development of man from his prehistoric status to the present; nor is it necessary to trace in detail the corresponding development of human values. It is sufficient to note that on the basis of new experience new values emerged, and with new values, new capacity. The proportion of purely biological values to the totality of human values has declined markedly as values have proliferated. In other words, man's nature has changed substantially over the period in question. An increasing proportion of his experience and activity has been *psychological* (in the broadest sense of the term), rather than biological, and his psychological pleasures and pains—previously impossible for him when his essential nature was at a lower level of development—are typically no less demanding than their biological competitors.

At this stage we return to our distinction between preferred and preferable values. The essence of the normative concept lies in the proposition that there is frequently if not typically a divergence between preferred values and preferable values within the known value system of the same individual. Stated in other terms, the individual, in making a choice of actions, frequently

selects for implementation a value which he knows—by his own experience or knowledge in the broadest sense—to be inferior, or less preferable, to another. *In a given situation, both values, the preferred and the preferable, are part of the structure of reality; they are both "facts" of experience to the individual; the one is just as susceptible of description, study, and analysis as the other; and the "value judgment" involved is a process of comparison and evaluation of the data identical in principle to inductive and inferential judgments made by science in all its other areas.* Why, then, does the individual, knowing the preferability of one value over another, ever choose the latter? The only, and the ultimate, explanation for this is the concept of freedom; and the only conceivable meaning of the word "ought," when applied to human behavior, is the ethical or moral imperative, arising basically out of "the will to live," to use freedom correctly, *i. e.*, to select the limiting case—the known, preferable value.

This, in essence, is the case for normative science or the scientific determination of value judgments. It implies no more and no less than that judgments pertaining to values may be (and are) based upon knowledge—knowledge acquired through experience and observation of the essential facts of human nature and behavior. A value which is unknown to a particular individual is not a part of his value system; hence, it can afford no ethical imperative or guide to rational action. To the extent that knowledge of values, either for individuals or groups, is consciously organized into a meaningful system, values are dealt with methodically or scientifically. The difficulties in the way of exactness of knowledge in this area are, of course, tremendous, and have traditionally caused the more timorous and impatient observers to label the case as hopeless. But these difficulties are different only in degree, not in kind, from the difficulties already acknowledged by the social sciences in their search for exactness of knowledge; and even a casual review of history indicates the enormous progress which has been made, both in the rating and classification of specific values and in the construction of a theory of value. Economics, for example, in developing the concept of marginal value has contributed effectively to the refutation of the concept of moral absolutism, which would require, in principle, that classical music be rated for all times and

circumstances as preferable, equal, or nonpreferable to (say) swing music; or that the values appropriate to a seventy-year-old man be applicable to a seventeen-year-old boy, or vice versa. At a more fundamental level, philosophy has indicated in the categorical imperative, or principle of valuable acting, the foundation upon which all specific values rest.

IV

The rôle of the social scientist in formulating and evaluating social policy follows logically from what has already been said with respect to the nature of values for the individual. Just as knowledge of individual values enables the individual to select the preferable value in a given situation, so does knowledge of preferable social goals enable their rational selection. In either case, where knowledge is insufficient or lacking, any action taken is to that extent a gamble. In short, the possibility of the rational selection of goals is limited only by limitation of knowledge.

A distinction should be made, however, between individual and social goals. Social goals, in our context, are not individual values which are held in common by all or some fraction of the group. Rather, they are canons or objectives of behavior (either for individuals or for the group) considered by the group to be essential to the welfare of the group. As in the case of individual values, these social norms and ends reflect the accumulated experience and knowledge of the group. In primitive or even in many sectors of modern society, such knowledge comes slowly, unconsciously, and haphazardly, with a maximum of "cultural lag." In a rational, self-conscious society which deliberately seeks an increasing knowledge of social values through intensive social study and self-criticism, progress is more rapid.

The essential task of social organization and activity in a rational society is the promotion of a general climate or environment in which the multiplicity of individual aims and purposes can be achieved. Two corollaries stem from this view of rational social organization: (1) Social goals and policies are ultimately *instrumental* to individual ends or values. This, of course, is denied by various philosophies of "statism," "totalitarianism," etc., but

follows from the essential nature of values already indicated (and, it might be added, is borne out by the experience of mankind). (2) The task of determining valid social policy, complicated as it is, is infinitely simpler than the problem of determining the validity of the myriad goals and purposes of individuals. The principal problem in deciding matters of social policy is not so much a problem of evaluating specific individual goals to be furthered by social action, but of weighing the differential effects in both the short and the long run of particular policies upon particular groups and upon the society as a whole. This is not an easy task, but it is assuredly the task of the social scientist. In other words, the social scientist—as the one presumably most familiar with the nature of social welfare, the historical means by which it has been achieved in the past, and the instruments of welfare currently at hand—is presumably best qualified to formulate as well as evaluate social policy proposals. The process of formulating and evaluating intelligent policy is an integral one, requiring mutually interdependent knowledge and judgment at every step in the process.

Unfortunately, it is all too true that there are few “social scientists” in the exalted sense implied herein. Almost any social proposal of importance requires for either its formulation or evaluation not merely the respective contributions of the economist, the sociologist, the political scientist, *et al.*, but a proper synthesis of the knowledge of all. “Many are called but few are chosen” when it comes to the successful fulfilment of the responsibilities indicated; but some training, some knowledge, and some qualifications for the task are better than none. This is not to imply that an academically trained social scientist is necessarily superior to one who has attained knowledge of society through other experience. Nor does it imply that the social scientist should be the one to *decide*, as well as to *recommend*, social policy. It does mean that appropriate knowledge is the *sine qua non* of satisfactory value judgment, whether in the field of individual values or in that of social policy. Finally, it means that “social science” is a collective endeavor, in which the various specialists, in order to be successful, must have an intimate working knowledge of the related areas of their collective enterprise.

COLLEGE TEACHING: THE LONELIEST PROFESSION

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More than three academic years have passed since the publication of the famous Harvard Committee report, *General Education in a Free Society*. During these years most liberal arts colleges have reacted to the suggestions of the Harvard and other committees by pruning some of the luxuriant new growth of college courses, and by adopting a "core curriculum" of required general studies that are agreed to be essential to the education of all students.

What has been the result? It is too early to make any valid estimate of the total effects on any given class, for the freshmen who began their work in 1946 and 1947 have not yet graduated. But of the resulting changes in class work and teaching something can be said. The new curriculum is not taught any better than the old one, and few administrators have even attempted to apply new standards to teachers of the new disciplines.

A common feeling among college students at graduation is that they have just emerged from a theater, where they were spectators at a long matinee. Their fathers, or perhaps their collective Uncle had paid for the show, enabling them to sit comfortably in their balcony seats with nothing to do but listen, and occasionally to scribble program notes, while the performers exerted themselves admirably upon the stage. It had been a long performance, sometimes entertaining, sometimes not, and when they came out, it was dark.

The elective system required a teaching staff of performers. As the curriculum grew in size and particularity it became obvious that only specialists should be employed to deal with the great mass of information, and the colleges were staffed with men eager to "know more and more about less and less," as the saying went. The typical professor was a great repository of learning, and he usually found himself in competition—often friendly, of course—

with his own or other textbooks. It was only natural, then, that administrators should bestow the highest rewards upon professors who had written books and could lecture.

No one supposes that lecturing, dramatic or otherwise, is a suitable way of teaching the new core curriculum. For freshman and sophomore courses lecturing has long since been largely abandoned. The professor is now asked to stop writing and demonstrating that he has read the book, and to find out by informal discussion whether the student has read it. To some extent the professor's books of reference have been discarded in favor of original texts or "great books." Now, these books are notoriously hard to read, and the technique of leading a discussion—which differs, by the way, from "recitation"—is hard to acquire. The professor will usually admit, perhaps even with shame, that despite his honest intentions he did most of the talking in the discussion hour. Coverage of the subject matter, he will say, required it. Any theatrical director will tell you that there is nothing harder than getting an actor into the background or off the stage.

"The majority of college professors do not know how to teach," said Dr. Harry J. Carman, Dean of Columbia College of Columbia University, to an academic audience last February. "Our college staffs are weighted with well-meaning but often dull and routine people. . . . Again and again one looks in vain for evidence of purpose in classroom, lecture hall, and laboratory. The only apparent purpose the observer can discover is to fill the interval, from bell to bell, with another segment of the subject-matter of the course which the student can and should acquire for himself." Dean Carman's is perhaps the most authoritative voice raised in a plea for a new kind of teaching that will vitalize the new curriculum. But the same ideas and objections are heard at the professional meetings, and usually they come from the professors themselves.

It is of course against the Ph.D. and the graduate school that most criticism is being directed. According to the *New York Times*' account of Dean Carman's speech, Dean Carman said that "graduate schools must accept most of the blame." "Too often," he said, "a man gets his Ph.D. with honors, but when it comes to teaching he is incompetent. A knowledge of one's subject," he

pointed out, "is not enough if the professor does not know how to put himself across in the classroom." But on the other hand, Professor James Fullington of Ohio State University, Professor Sanford Meech of Syracuse University, and others have come forward to defend in the professional journals the traditional graduate school curriculum. Perhaps this controversy will result in some minor changes in graduate studies, but it is a safe guess that graduate schools will continue to emphasize research, and that the Ph.D. will continue to be used as a guarantee of measurable knowledge of subject matter, not of "methods."

The attack on the Ph.D. is a symptom of our general dissatisfaction with college teaching. The graduate school provided an immediate and obvious target for criticism, and it seemed reasonable to suppose that having changed the undergraduate curriculum we should now change the graduate curriculum as well. Another proposed solution to the problem, also symptomatic of our displeasure, is to "attract better men into the profession." This is to be achieved by federal subsidy, or perhaps by the use of superior propaganda and advertising, but the advocates of this plan have not as yet demonstrated how we shall change the disposition of Americans to place college professors on a lower economic level than manual laborers.

II

The underlying cause of failure in teaching the new curriculum has not been touched upon in the controversy so far, yet it is curiously simple. College professors continue to behave like performers because they are still rewarded for their performance, not for their teaching. Certain conditions of the academic career, certain customs and ideas that prevail among administrators, militate against reform in the standards of teaching.

The logic which required that college teachers be selected according to their ability to do research work proceeded inexorably to the further conclusion that they should be promoted only if they did more research work. Thus the publication of research has become the principal index of a college teacher's effectiveness, the Procrustean law of administrators. Candidates for the academic

career learn this lesson almost as soon as they apply for a college position. A friend of mine, having completed his graduate work at Princeton University, was invited by a good Eastern university to apply for an instructorship. The dean offered no illusions about his prospects. "You will be appointed, with eight other new men, for two years. At the end of that time the two instructors who have published most will be retained, and the rest will go." Considering that the salary offered was \$2400, my friend was perhaps justified in remarking, "The salary was bad enough; they didn't have to twist my arm."

This decree does not represent the real standards of American colleges; unfortunately it expresses only the ideal. Had my friend applied at a slightly less admirable college, the administrator would not have told him this but would have thought it. Had he applied at a really mediocre college the administrator would neither have told him this nor thought it, but would have wished he could think it. The idea, which now has the sanctity of tradition, fully satisfied the philosophy of academic administration under the elective system fifteen years ago. Then it seemed reasonable enough that you would find the best professor by finding the man who wrote the best reference book. And since then no new way of evaluating instructors or developing good professors has suggested itself to administrators.

Perhaps my friend's resentment is not typical either, and does not represent the feelings of most new instructors. After all, they do continue to accept the conditions of appointment. Emerging from graduate school, many of them doubtless feel at home in libraries and laboratories—far more at home there than in the classroom. For them, the assignment of more research offers less difficulty than the task of teaching, particularly when the classroom work is supposed to result in changing the ways of thinking of a large group of 18-year-olds who are unfamiliar with even the basic terms of the subject.

How does the requirement of further research influence the everyday work of the academic staff? All too frequently, the effect is to reward college teachers for neglecting their students. The instructor is confronted by a dilemma: he is to be paid for his classroom work (and for the lower ranks in many institutions, salary is

related directly to the number of sections taught) but all his hopes for advancement must be founded upon another enterprise that is quite different from teaching.

Jacques Barzun has written eloquently about the plight of graduate students who begin teaching before completing their Ph.D. requirements. Everything is set up to make the simultaneous pursuit of these two goals an impossibility. If the novice instructor prepares himself adequately for the next day's teaching and corrects the students' papers he has no time left for research, and yet he knows that failure to complete the research will put an end to his teaching career. Even in the summer, which is supposedly the time of intellectual refreshment and renewal for teachers, he is usually forced into the same routine by economic necessity. What wonder, then, if he yields to the temptation to complete his research by sacrificing the preparation of his daily classes? Why should he resist it? The administrative officers will not consider how well he taught his students; they will consider whether he secured his degree.

The graduate student-teachers are not the only members of the academic family who face this dilemma. Even after the Ph.D. hurdle has been taken, the instructor or assistant professor must give as much of his time as his honor will permit to new research. Most college teaching is done by men in the lower ranks, men who do not have professional status and therefore can hold their positions only by writing, to produce tangible evidence of scholarship. Thus the same conflict between ambition and conscience makes a nightmare of everybody's teaching until the goal of a professional status with continuous tenure is reached.

The requirement of further research and the habits of scholarship formed by research work lead college teachers into other temptations, more subtly and indirectly. Very often the scholar finds himself teaching one of the large introductory courses. He has much more learning than the work requires; he has, in fact, enough learning to give the advanced course in the same subject if only old Professor X would retire. In the meanwhile here is a large and heterogeneous group of students who have only a moderate interest in the subject matter, and he must decide how to convey it to them. Will he choose the unfamiliar, adventurous method

of discussion, subject himself to the buffets of trial and error, allow his students to flail the serene air of his classroom with conflicting winds of opinion? No, he will present the subject in the familiar, customary way—the scholarly way. Since the professional societies demand that all scholarly papers be read, not delivered extemporaneously, he will read his own material. He will arrange it with some attention to efficiency and logical order, following the same scholarly ideal.

But it is not at all certain that students absorb learning logically. Discussion is replacing lecturing because we recognize that even logical presentation of subject matter may still be boring, or may fail to command attention, and that learning may occur in illogical ways. The lecture offers only one handle to be grasped by all candidates for learning, while the discussion allows for individual differences.

The task of managing a class so that students will grasp facts through their own efforts, and thus learn how to think, is seldom faced by the scholar-teacher. All the impulses, habits, and ambitions in which he has been encouraged urge him toward the display of his own knowledge, and toward the goal of specialized teaching on the graduate school level. Many of our familiar clichés about academic people can be traced directly to memories of the scholarly man teaching the introductory course. The impression which he makes on undergraduates ripens naturally into a stereotyped image of the “absent-minded professor” in an “ivory tower.” The hackneyed story of examination papers graded by the “step system,” which seems to have a perennial freshness for each generation of sophomores, has at least this much of truth as its basis: most scholars spend as little time as possible correcting papers.

III

Why have administrators made such extensive changes in the curriculum, but no change whatsoever in the standards of teaching? The answer seems to be that in evaluating teachers the administrators have considered only tangible evidences of scholarship, and left the intangible evidences of teaching to chance or guesswork. Articles in the professional journals, learned monographs and dis-

sertations are tangible; all of them can be weighed and counted, while some of them can even be read. But no one has stumbled upon a way and few have been interested in a way of finding out whether teaching is good or bad, so that the most important function of academic institutions is veiled in deepest secrecy.

There is an ancient, honored custom in the profession that no administrative officer will observe a teacher's work in the classroom either before or after appointing him. Before the appointment, the appointing officer will look him up and down, talk with him, scrutinize his records and his list of publications. Then he will read some letters of recommendation, from professors who have read the candidate's examination papers and theses or from other administrators who have never observed the man in class. After appointing him, the administrative officer will keep track of increments to his list of publications, learn what he can about the teacher by hearsay, and perhaps read the results of questionnaires submitted to the students; but he will not visit the classroom to observe the man's teaching. It is somewhat as though a sales manager had to engage and promote members of his staff without ever looking at their sales records.

The president of one high-ranking college told me frankly that he had no idea about the teaching abilities of most of the institution's faculty. "We know only about the best and the worst," he said. Another college president, who is also meticulous in observing the ancient custom, justified it by relating a painful experience of his own. Early in his teaching career he had been visited in class by a venerable dean, who sat through the first half of the class period with a curiously sardonic expression on his face, then suddenly rose and stalked from the room.

Whenever anyone asks in the professional journals for an explanation of this strange academic custom, the same strange answer is given. Administrators, and some professors, feel that observation of classroom work would be an unfair test, since it might cause the teacher some embarrassment. Embarrassment, mind you! When President Truman recently visited the War College unexpectedly, and listened to a 90-minute lecture by Dr. Raymond Sontag, the reporters asked Dr. Sontag for a statement. He remarked, "I was scared stiff."

One might have supposed that any worth-while art or profession would subject its practitioners to some tensions. The surgeon must feel a tension as he picks up his scalpel to make a dangerous incision. The actor and the concert musician have to overcome stage fright. In the academic family the football coach must face a public test of his abilities each Saturday afternoon in the fall. But college teachers are protected from such tension by tradition. To find an appropriate analogy for this academic custom one would have to go back to the medieval trade organizations, which were aptly called "mysteries."

To the man or woman who is really interested in teaching, American colleges now offer a very meager career. He will have, in the response of his students, a kind of personal reward every day; but he must resign himself to a life of obscurity and frustration, living not in an ivory tower but on a dingy side street. For him teaching will be the loneliest profession in the world.

TEACHING RUSSIAN CIVILIZATION¹

By NICHOLAS VAKAR

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Despite the brisk development of Slavic studies during and since the war, the prediction is made that they have no future in this country. The Slavic world has changed into the Soviet world whose Slavic aspects are rapidly dissolving in the universal problems of Communism, Dictatorship, and Totalitarianism. It is therefore no longer a subject for Slavists, but for teachers of political and social sciences who are better equipped to deal with such matters.

According to this concept, Russia as a historical nation is incidental to Communism, as the Arabic world was incidental to Mohammedanism or German culture to Nazism. Is it really necessary to study Goethe to understand Hitler, or to translate Dante in order to foresee another Mussolini? It seems that the more we studied the German and Italian past, the less we were able to understand their present. Russia interests the American only as the embodiment of an idea which threatens American liberties. Can Pushkin help him to recognize the aims of Stalin? The Russia of old is to the Soviet Union what ancient Rome is to Italy of De Gasperi and Togliatti. Let the dead bury their dead.

The field of Slavics is thus located somewhere close to the field of Classics. We can teach language and, with certain reservations, history and literature. But more and more the language will be taught by a general linguist assisted by native informants, for our technique is deemed obsolete. We are thought to be limited to the speech of Pushkin and Tolstoy, and the American wants to know how Molotov uses it. If history and literature are left to us this is primarily for the reason that their references lie in the past, and they are not directly related to the current issues at stake.

¹ Based on a paper read at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages, December 28, 1948, in New York City.

One may object that the present situation in Russia is a mixture of old and new and one must know something of the former in order to evaluate the latter. But the opponents will point out that no one would care to know what features of the 1929 model are repeated in the 1949 Chevrolet. The fact that some aspects of the Soviet system can be traced back to the time of Cyril and Methodius is of little consequence. No one will study Henry Ford's life or General Motors' history to see how the new automobile operates. All that the American wants to know is how the Soviet system operates. The approach is pragmatic. Only those features of Russian civilization are studied which are relevant to the new political and economic fact which is the Soviet Union today. America, we are reminded, is in need of quick specialists, not of ponderous philosophers. There is no time to waste. World War III may break out in a couple of years.

Consequently new techniques are being developed for teaching Russian subjects, and new men prepared outside the organized Slavic field. Their strong points seem to be—at least this is the way they put it—integration of data within specific fields of observation, absence of bias and prejudice, and “an alert feeling of practical American interest.” Slavic scholars are under pressure to change their methods or go out of business, leaving their field to others.

II

The new trend has been widely, and sometimes severely, criticized. Narrow and shallow specialization, before a general background is acquired, is meaningless and dangerous to the rightly understood American interest. Indeed, how would we feel if the study of America were to start with the New Deal? We would shrug our shoulders at an expert on American affairs who knew how many votes were cast at the last elections or how the Stock Exchange operates, but had heard nothing of Monroe, Emerson, and the American Frontier. How can he be competent to deal with America if he does not know what kind of people we are? He should know that the American character was not formed in Washington, D. C., during recent years, but has come out of “long inheritance, environment and experience.” His approach to America would be

judged irrelevant and, in so far as foreign policy is concerned, unpractical.

But we start Russian studies with the Five-Year Plans and the Stalin Constitution of 1936. What do we know about the Russian character? About Russian inheritance, environment, and experience? One can hear from the American expert, produced by the new educational machine, that Peter the Great died in the sixteenth century, having made a testament for world conquest; that the liking for uniform is one of the permanent elements of Russian culture; that political exiles crowded out the natives in Siberia, and annexed it to the Russian Empire; that Russian citizens were not protected by law before the Revolution; and other such nonsense. These and the following are not fancy examples, but are taken from life and from documents collected in different colleges. Our spines would shiver if certain techniques, developed for the study of primitive societies, were applied to the study of American behavior. Yet, the American is told that among the European peoples the Russians are the only ones who swaddle their babies very tightly, thus depriving them of muscular cognition during the very important first nine months of life; of course, as has been observed among certain tribes, they will make up for this period later, and develop a violence complex. This will explain the Moscow trials and concentration camps. Students are told that it is not necessary to know Russian to take a dictionary and find that Russian has no word for *privacy*, which would mean that the Russians have never known what privacy is.

One may point to a tightly swaddled Christ painted by Giotto on the walls of the Arena Chapel in Padua. However questionable the source of information about the Russian baby may be, the early muscular cognition did not eliminate violence in the rest of Europe. German and French have no direct term for English *privacy*, and even the Texans have no word for *prostor* (boundless expanse, vast horizons, and complete freedom of moving about). Strangely enough, Russian has no word for *autocracy*, and yet—¹

¹ *Samoderzhavie*, *samoelastie* by which the word *autocracy* is currently translated, refer to power, not to government. On the other hand, the idea of "democracy" is expressed by *narodopraustvo* which is distinguished from *narodovlastie*. Cf. *samoderzhavny gospodin Veliki Novgorod* while *Novgorod* was a classical example of medieval democracy.

All this, of course, is beyond the scope of study, and Russian life appears to the student of Soviets as an inextricable cluster of paradoxes.

With such stories one can fill a book. But I shouldn't advise publishing the book. It may boomerang, and sadder stories would be told about us, the teachers of Slavics. I am afraid that we have only ourselves to blame for the situation just described.

III

At this point a little history is appropriate.

Until lately, we concentrated on teaching language on the one hand, and history and literature on the other. If we did not display much imagination, competence, and enterprising spirit, this was not entirely our fault. Before 1914, only three American colleges were giving regular instruction in Russian. While teachers of French, German, and Spanish farmed with most modern equipment, we had to work our field with spades and pick-axes in the later years. There were many who had never known how to handle even these tools. Having been born in Russia was often their only qualification for a teacher's position. They were pioneering in a field and climate unknown to them. True, they learned quickly from experience. They even wrote textbooks. It is easy to criticize their work, but good things also were achieved. There are able people among us and their efforts inspire respect and admiration. Hundreds of Americans have learned Russian; we could not possibly expect a better harvest.

The war gave a tremendous momentum to the instruction in Russian, and we are better off now in both method and equipment. According to the survey made by Professor Arthur P. Coleman, Russian was taught in more than 200 American colleges last year.¹ Only a few, however, have been able to maintain, develop, and improve the intensive wartime techniques. In most cases we still have to labor with spade and pick-ax. Instructors who have no adequate preparation still have no place to go for a "refresher

¹ *A Report on the Status of Russian and Other Slavic and East European Languages in the Educational Institutions of the United States, Its Territories, Possessions and Mandates, with Additional Data on Similar Studies in Canada and Latin America*, by Arthur Prudden Coleman, Assistant Professor, Department of Slavic Languages, Columbia University (New York, 1948), 109 pp.

course." American universities prepare excellent teachers of French, of German, and of Spanish, but they leave the Russian teacher to fend for himself. As a result, Russian students in certain colleges find themselves at a disadvantage when they apply for foreign service.

Perhaps more precarious is the situation in the field of history and literature. True, Professor Coleman's survey has recorded important quantitative gains since the war. Russian history was taught in 81, and Russian literature in 44, American and Canadian colleges last year. More often than not, however, a course in Russian history will concentrate on the Imperial period and cover the Soviet Revolution only slightly, if at all. Likewise, a course in Russian literature usually will be a course in writings from the nineteenth century up to World War I. History is presented as a story of emperors, conquests, and invasions, and literature as a catalogue of poets, novelists, and playwrights—both programs ending with the Revolution. Some instructors even make it clear that there has been no Russian literature since 1917.

What is the student to know about sociological and psychological conditions that made the Soviet Revolution possible and successful? At a final examination, he would have to answer such questions as these: *Describe the death of Dostoevski and that of Turgenev. Give the hour, day, month, and year. Describe and discuss their respective funerals and evaluate their positions in Russian literature;* and these: *Which feature of the murder trial is a first in Russian literature? When and where was the novel published? Serially? In book form?* Still another: *When was Turgenev's "A Month in the Country" first produced? Who was the famous actress who enacted first Verochka and later Natalia Petrovna? How many times?* The questions follow a pattern well known before the introduction of Slavic studies to this country. (Don't you remember: *Give the names of all the kings in the plays of Shakespeare?*)

Seldom is an attempt made to pierce the Russian mind, let alone a sociological examination. History and literature are treated as disciplines sufficient to themselves, disconnected from life, and entirely separated from problems of our day. A literary critic, a former teacher himself, deplores the translation of Vyshinski's book *The Law of the Soviet State* into English, because it gives a

distorted picture of Russian culture, and of the history of Russian juridical thought in particular. That is true, of course. But one must not confuse scientific objectivity with lifeless neutrality. The translator and the publisher realize that the American wants to know present Russia as well.

Thus two concepts of Russia are presented. On the one hand, a historical nation in its relation to world culture and, on the other hand, a modern political power in its relation to world affairs. The student learns from us the important heritage of the Russian past. But when he wants to know how the heritage is being spent, we tell him that this is another story. Two Russias appear before the American, separated and independent from each other. Can we wonder that life begins for him precisely where it ends for some of us?

IV

To fill the gap, Russian area studies emerged during the war. The pendulum shifted to the other extreme: if the Slavic studies showed no interest in the present, so the regional studies ignored the relevant past. At the time, this was explained by conditions of emergency. But the pendulum stuck, and did not swing back immediately after the war. On the contrary, more colleges offer courses in Soviet Literature, Soviet Drama, Twentieth Century Russian History, Soviet Economics, Soviet Law, Soviet Social Institutions, and the like, for enrollment in which no knowledge of Russian history or literature is required.

Who is to teach these courses? In many cases, instructors have had contact with the subject only via the English printed page and, as it often has been pointed out, it makes a certain difference whether the pages are of Maurice Hindus and Frederic Shuman or of William Henry Chamberlin, David Dallin, and Max Eastman. In both cases, however, Soviet facts are interpreted in terms of American civilization and social science, and thus the point is often missed and the student misled. Miscarriages have become obvious.

It is significant and fortunate that the inadequacies of the two extremes were soon realized. This country requires that Russian studies serve a practical purpose, and neither Slavists nor social

scientists knew how to serve it. When the Slavist stops at the threshold of the Revolution because he is unable to explain it, his science is moonshine; and so is social science which is limited to a description of the Soviet mechanism. Of course, studies of Imperial Russia, of the Revolutionary Movement, the Stalin Constitution, the Blueprints of the Five-Year Plans, and the Social Changes in the Soviet Union within the last decade increase our factual knowledge. Out of historical context, they contribute little to our understanding.

Communism can be profitably studied only against its own background, which is formed by the inheritance, environment, and experience of the peoples. The Russian situation confronts us with a series of questions to which we shall find no correct answers unless, paraphrasing Henry Steele Commager, we realize that answers are dictated by the Russian past and the Russian character. One cannot make sense of Soviet aims and behavior unless one knows how the peoples of the Soviet Union regard their own history and manifest destiny, and how they look at themselves. We knew German history and literature, and we also knew the Nazi political mechanism, but only a few were able to bridge their knowledge, and foresee. We knew all the political and economic facts about prewar Japan, and how did it serve us? Mistakes of that sort are paid for dearly.

America faces the same problem again: What to teach about Russia? How to teach it? Who can teach it?

V

The sociologist and the Slavist must come out of their ivory towers, and join hands. For the Slavist, the problem is to connect history, literature, and linguistics with life. For the social scientist, it is to realize that the statistical approach can be but a temporary expedient.

There is evidence that they both are beginning to get rid of their respective biases. Harvard University was the first institution, as far as this writer knows, to grant a Ph.D. degree in *Sociology and Slavics* three years ago. Other plans are in operation, or in preparation, and they tend to one goal: study of Russian life as a whole. The purpose is to cover all the aspects of Russian behavior in order

to discover its regularities and continuum. History is treated as a process, not a series of static periods. The student will not only be able to describe the Soviet machine in operation, but can also see the forces which produced it, and which maintain it alongside with the *MVD*. If something happens to the 1949 model, he will not have to run to the nearest fix-it shop. Trained appropriately, he will be able to deal with changing as well as with static situations in the Soviet Slavic world.

The new trend, struggling against the two extremes, is slowly taking shape. The first full course in Russian Civilization was introduced at Wheaton College, (Massachusetts) in 1945-46. Last year, twenty-five American colleges were engaged in a similar venture. The process is spontaneous. Let us briefly examine its heartening characteristics.

Integration of Russian studies, undertaken by a few progressive colleges, falls into two different patterns: (1) a Soviet area program when the budget, library, and personnel facilities permit it, and (2) a comprehensive course in Russian Civilization when facilities are limited to one or two competent men on the faculty. Not all the colleges answered my inquiry about the new organization of their programs, and my information is by no means complete. In some cases, it would seem, a course in Russian Civilization is still primarily a course in political history or in literature, and such topics as geography, government, peoples, foreign policy, religion, economics, education, law, arts and sciences, are left out. Instructors complain that they were not able to overcome the resistance of other departments where Russian subjects seem to be deaf-mute and very dear stepchildren. The integration is partial, but there is hope for the future.

In some other cases, however, we can see a successful attempt to integrate Russian life, from the beginnings of the Russian State to our day. This does not mean that contradictions and paradoxes are eliminated. On the contrary, they are presented in their interaction, and explained. The well informed student is able to form his own opinion. At Stanford University a course in Russian Civilization includes a survey of geography and history, peoples and institutions, religion and philosophy, language and literature, art and music, about fifty lectures in all; it is offered at the beginning

of the academic year to give the student an opportunity "to find out which of the above topics he would prefer for a more advanced study." At Wheaton College, a full-year course covers such subjects as the origins of the Slavs, the growth of the Russian State, geography, demography, government, foreign policy, economics, law, literature, family, arts and sciences, religion, education, communism and nationalism. A Russian area course is given at Colgate University, where "once every other week," writes Professor Albert Parry, "all the eight area courses get together for a panel discussion." At Indiana University a course in Russian Civilization is offered every other year, and it includes communism, nationalism, religion, education, problems of national minorities, the judicial system, the press, theatre, sciences, art, music, and literature. A few years ago, these topics were entirely ignored by American schools.

The obvious shortcoming of the above programs (but perhaps their advantage, too) is that they are entirely determined by the competence and vision of an individual instructor. More important though less integrated is the organization of studies in larger institutions. Their Russian programs are usually supported with grants from endowments and foundations and, in general, operate as autonomous bodies such as the Russian Institute at Columbia University, the Committee of International and Regional Studies at Harvard University, the Slavic Institute at the University of California, the Board of Russian Studies at Syracuse University, and so on. They cut across the departmental lines, and the gaps are filled by specially appointed instructors or visiting lecturers. Greater facilities permit the covering of most aspects of Russian life with separate courses, the integration of which within the student's time has already become a difficult problem. It is complicated by language requirements getting higher each year, for more courses are based almost entirely on reading the Russian original material. A comprehensive program usually extends over two years, leading to a certificate in some institutions and to a Master's degree in some others.

It is interesting to note that both the single course and the area programs seem to compete in raising their scholastic requirements. At Harvard University, only the twenty best qualified applicants

are admitted to the Soviet Union program each year. Regardless of the credit obtained in class instruction, students are submitted to a general examination in Russian, written and oral, before taking their degrees. Various prerequisites have been set in other institutions to select students on both undergraduate and graduate levels: freshmen at Colgate University, and freshmen and sophomores at Wheaton College are excluded from Russian courses, and at the University of Miami admission is now "more and more by permission of the instructor." The tendency is toward elite rather than mass education in understanding the Soviet world.

Yet, the integration of studies still is far from being horizontally and vertically complete. In at least three universities, the Area study is paralleled by a Research Center working with it in a more or less close cooperation. But Slavic Departments, except for language instruction, seldom participate fully in the program. They still look askance at each other, and this is unfortunate. Indeed, only in a few cases has a full cooperation been achieved.

The Russian programs still struggle between the Charybdis of scholastic conservatism and the Scylla of facile pragmatism, but they are coming nearer to the goal. This country is in need of well prepared men to plan future relations with Russia. The quick specialist, though still in demand, is an obsolete model indeed. Two systems of teaching Russian Civilization, yesterday in opposition, seem to be merging into a sound and promising plan. Errors and mistakes will be committed, but the evidence is growing that common sense may win.

THE INDIVISIBILITY OF TOLERANCE

By DWIGHT L. BOLINGER

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Never in recent years has a more concerted battle to attain a moral goal been witnessed than the one now waged by press and radio and from the public platform to win the American people for tolerance. At every turn they are admonished to ignore distinctions of race and creed; the theme of "Americans all" has moved from passive theory to active warfare upon those prejudices and prejudiced groups for whom the measure of a human being is the color of his skin or his haunts on the Sabbath. Times are hard—and this is something of a contradiction in the whole picture of tolerance—on the Gerald Smiths, the John Rankins, and the owners of a few newspapers and radio stations who still hold to the supremacy of the white, particularly the Protestant White. As a result, some minority groups have made more gains in the past five years than in the previous fifty, in the elimination of restrictions upon where they may live, what they may do, how they may travel, and what rights they may invoke in courts of law.

A few critics have been quick to point out that tolerance is largely a negative virtue. We tolerate mainly when we are indifferent, not when we must actively restrain ourselves (this would be "forbearance") or when we further the aims of others (this would be "sympathy" or "cooperation"). Clearly there are times when active restraint is necessary—the sincere Orthodox Jew can scarcely agree with turning his Sabbath into a work-day, nor can a Catholic look indifferently upon a secular court that dissolves a sacramental marriage. On the furtherance side, it is possible for a white man not only to tolerate a Negro's living next door to him, but to help him move in. Let us assume that the campaign now wearing the merely negative label of "tolerance" also embraces the positive virtues of forbearance, sympathy, and cooperation.

Being thus as generous as possible with the label, we can now

look beneath it. And since we also want our virtue to stand on its own legs, let us rule out the question of whether it is possible or desirable to abolish conflicts between social classes; let us assume this to be both possible and desirable, and so judge today's labor of tolerance solely upon its inner sincerity and consistency. We accept tolerance as a virtue, and inquire how virtuous—by their own standards—are those who preach it.

II

The first criterion of a virtue is that it has no ax to grind.

Do our distillers of tolerance offer it in its pure form, or blended with other spirits? The answer seems to lie in the slogan that accompanies the plea for tolerance on radio programs: "to keep America strong." This is a seemingly innocent—almost transparently acceptable—package, for a strong America appeals to most Americans practically as a virtue in itself. But at a time when the United States (and note how different "a strong United States" sounds from "a strong America") is arming itself and half the world, and the same newspapers that carry appeals for tolerance also carry headlines announcing that the Air Force has selected its targets in Russia—at such a time, the resting of tolerance upon national strength becomes suspect, to say the least. Against this background tolerance pales into a device for keeping the peace at home while preparing for war abroad. If we treat our minority religious and racial groups right, then no enemy nation can appeal to them as Hitler appealed to the Sudeten Germans and as Russia has appealed to nonreligious minorities all over the world.

A democracy at home can be a tyranny abroad. A German army could be democratized with the object of destroying democracy everywhere else. A lesser tolerance can be cultivated for the sake of a greater intolerance.

Yet, if the fruits are good—if as a result those of minority groups can enter upon a fuller participation in American brotherhood—should we question the motive? This much has been a distinct gain. We should not distrust the motive, from the standpoint of practical tolerance, unless it carries within it the power to root out the very virtue that it pretends to implant.

Looking closely at how the demand for tolerance has been ap-

plied we see, alas, not only further proof of an ulterior motive, but also the portents of how ultimately destructive that motive is.

First, where has the campaign's greatest pressure been brought? Nearly always, when tolerance is mentioned in public, there is an expressed or implied reference to a race or a creed. We are to have not a tolerance run wild (this, like a completely untrammelled Christianity, would not be respectable), but a *limited* tolerance. The one great area which our championship of tolerance has not touched with any of its blessings is the area of the mind. We are to have religious and racial tolerance, but not political or individual tolerance. We are to tolerate Negroes, but not conscientious objectors; Jews, but not members of the Communist Party; Catholics, but not college professors who declare their convictions. The same newspapers and radio programs that deplore racial and religious prejudice gloat over the jailing of individualists who for one reason, and party-liners who for another reason, refuse to bow to the abrogation of their Constitutional rights.

Or is there a method in this partiality, one that looks upon tolerance as something that is needed where prejudice exists against a trait that cannot be helped, such as a man's color (or even his faith, if it is looked upon as dictated by a supernatural power and so beyond his control), but is not needed to combat prejudice against an idea, which can be changed? After all, the Communists are free to become Republicans or Democrats and if they made a wrong choice why should we be tolerant of their stupidity? We want them to become Republicans or Democrats for their own good. Tolerance is neither here nor there.

III

Accept this anti-intellectual definition of tolerance for the moment, and let us see whether in the narrower zones of race and creed the ideal of tolerance has been evenly realized.

We have named the chief beneficiaries of the campaign, Catholics, Jews, and Negroes (and we are grateful and glad for their sake). Now what distinguishes these three groups? All are minorities by comparison with the Protestant white, but they have three other things in common: they are numerous, they are represented by close-knit organizations, and—especially in support of the cam-

paign—their organizations are aggressive. One might go so far as to say that some of the weight of the drive on the part of non-minority groups has been to take the “heat” off that aggressiveness. When an official as potent as the head of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters sanctions a refusal to accept being drafted into a Jim Crow army, it is high time to put the pressure of tolerance on the Army.

The victories that the Negro race have won have benefited all racial minorities, the rest of whom are less markedly different from the numerically dominant white. Not so with religions, where distinctions of degree are less pronounced. There was no tolerance to benefit the California atheist who claimed the right to express his views on the air, nor for the radio station that accepted him; instead, the radio industry was threatened in Congress in the name of “censorship of religion” (—this to a medium that has been far more generous than any other in according space and time to religions). When a Catholic prelate was tried and given a jail sentence the newspapers spread the story of intolerance on their front pages for days; but when a Jehovah’s Witness was shot by a firing squad in Greece for refusal to bear arms, the fact was scarcely reported. The honest truth is that minor minorities in religion have drawn scant benefit from the current wave of tolerance. It is, in short, tolerance for *powerful* minorities, with the degree of tolerance adjusted to the degree of power.

Now all of this is self-defeating. Tolerance is a practice, but it is a practice based on an attitude. If it were merely a practice, the man who is friendly with his wife but inimical to his neighbor would be counted a partially tolerant man. We assess tolerance by the feelings that man has for his fellow man; if he accepts one and rejects another, irrationally, we regard him as discriminatory, not as tolerant. So long as emotional intolerance toward one group or one individual is permitted, intolerance *per se* is nurtured and grows ready to feed upon other individuals or groups when hunger stirs animosities or a Hitler beats the drum. Partial tolerance must either grow into full tolerance or cease to be tolerance at all. It is not enough to praise God so that other ends may be served, for the step is short from praise God and pass the ammunition to praise the ammunition and pass God.

IN REFERENCE TO "EDUCATION"

By FRANCIS C. ZAKOLSKI

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In a recent article a number of assertions were made about Education:

1. That there is really no science of Education.
2. That teachers do not have the love of learning.
3. That there are merely meaningless mechanical requirements.¹

These seem to be sufficiently important to warrant consideration. Criticism is a difficult and constructive factor. Criticism may be uncomfortable, but it is not to be feared; rather it is complacency which is the real enemy. This is not a defense of Education; it is not a refutation of what is maintained of Education. This paper proposes to examine candidly the issues involved and their implications, and with full cognizance of the elusiveness of objectivity.

II

The Science of Education. Early in the history of the University of Michigan a motion was made to establish a chair of pedagogy, the nineteenth century term for Education. The University, as a progressive institution, received the proposal favorably. A professor was chosen to head the new division. Each division of the University had a body of literature to be taught. The question was put to the new department also: "To what body of literature does pedagogy refer?" In this instance, the query was so disconcerting that the whole proposal for a division of pedagogy was dropped.

The inquiry may be made again: "To what body of literature does Education refer?" It is now less embarrassing. Education has

¹ Clapp, Harold L., "The Stranglehold on Education," *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, Vol. 35, No. 2, Summer, 1949, pp. 335-348.

a body of literature which has been created during this century. Doctoral theses, such as those found at Teachers College, Columbia University, and other universities, form a part of the literature. Such work as that of Thorndike, McCall, and Kelly on the theory and practice of measurement makes up another section. Work on the history and philosophy of Education creates a third segment. These and other related contributions constitute the body of knowledge, or science, of Education and it is this body of literature, this know-how, which places America first in public education. It is this factor of know-how which caused the Japanese, in the process of westernization, to ask for German aid in military matters, English aid in government, and American aid in public education. There is an Education literature.

Still the question remains: "Is Education a science?" If science is thought of as *scientia*, knowledge, then Education is a science because it is a body of knowledge. If science is thought of as a method based on data, quantification, and experimentation, then education is a science since it makes use of these. If science is thought of as *Naturwissenschaft* and *Geisteswissenschaft*, then Education belongs to the latter, though some, denying the existence of the latter, may place it under the first. The crux of the matter is that it may be classified as *Wissenschaft*. It is important to note that an essential part of this word (derivative of *schaffen*) refers not so much to a static body of knowledge as to the creation of knowledge. In Education this creation is in process. It is not a science which has the enviable brilliance of physics; few sciences have. It may be a very modest science, but it is a science and a very useful one.

At the beginning of a school year, teachers may well ask: "Why will children be absent?" "Will fraternity membership affect scholarship?" "How much language skill may be expected of a student with limited intelligence?" These seem reasonable questions to ask. These problems may also be restated: "A study of factors affecting scholarship in a college fraternity," "Some reasons for nonattendance of elementary school children," "The relations of improvability in language and grammar to intelligence." In this form, they apparently seem to represent the epitome of the ridiculous to some. It may be pointed out that some of the inves-

tigators concern themselves with very simple unscholarly problems. Difficulty and obscurity in themselves have no particular value to science or to scholarship or to teaching. Neither is an essence; both are accidents, possibly not entirely welcome ones. Other criteria serve better for the evaluation of knowledge. It would be neither commendable nor fruitful to impale the student on the altar of difficulty.

This is not to say that theses in Education do not concern themselves at times with naïve problems and trivial results. It certainly seems to happen in other fields. Social scientists sweat and toil over surprisingly petty problems, as Carl Murchison pointed out. Research in bacteriology assured us that washed undershirts are cleaner than dirty ones. A doctoral thesis (in English) at a Japanese university has determined the number of "i's" in Kipling's works. Similar examples could be cited from additional fields, including Education. Why do they occur at all? One reason is that they are pot-boilers. There is another reason: "The forest is dark and the way is difficult," and the travelers are so limited.

Yet some gleams of light are found. For two thousand years since Aristotle, theses in logic were written. Much of this knowledge was summarized in Prantl's four volume "*Geschichte der Logik im Abendlande*," which Pierce calls the "abyss of idiocy" to which pure reason sank. Except for Mill's work, no real advance was made since Aristotle. Plato would have called *Grundsetze der Arithmetik* pure understanding, but when Frege's work appeared, it was ignored or criticized as trivial and obscure. Harvard's Demos once asked Bertrand Russell who the *second* greatest philosopher was. Russell replied, "I do not know who the *second* greatest philosopher is, but the greatest is Frege." Great contributions may not be recognized when they appear.

It is said that courses in Education consist of "piffle." Possibly "simple obvious matter" could be substituted for "piffle," since "piffle" must be categorically rejected; "piffle" can never be good. Now, if it is said that courses in Education include much that is simple and obvious, then it is true; but this is not necessarily bad, since the criterion of inclusion is not difficulty but usefulness and pertinence.

If a professor of mathematics were asked to indicate the treasures of his field, he could point out the brilliant works of Leibnitz or Weierstrass or Georg Cantor, whom Pierce calls a king. A professor of philosophy could point to the method of Plato, still vital in the works of Alfred North Whitehead; to the work of Thomas Aquinas, resplendent intellectual justification of Christian faith; to the momentous thought of Immanuel Kant. To what could the educationist point? To textbook writers! Here is neither the brilliance of mathematics nor the magnificence of philosophy. However, the educationist may still be able to show how to let a child develop happily, how to teach him gladly, how he can learn without tears. At least the child may be grateful; and the school is built for him. European visitors are surprised that American school children like to come to school; it is the American educator who has worked for this kind of school and has succeeded in some measure.

III

The love of learning. But teachers do not inculcate the love of learning. This is at least partially true and possibly fortunate. The love of learning is not the whole of education. To operate on the principle that the love of learning is the major objective of education may be to betray the child. These ignorant tykes who come to school often use such odd criteria for judging a teacher. How infrequently they sing the praises of scholarship and the love of learning which the teacher has—for himself. And how often they confer membership in the *légion d'honneur* with the phrase: "He helped me!"

McCalmont's study shows how schools serve communities in which conditions obtain which are far from ideal. The children come to school dirty because they are unable to acquire habits of cleanliness at home, in some cases because there is no running water, possibly no sink. Some communities foster habits of questionable value, such as sewing up the child into underwear at the beginning of cold weather and not removing the child from this cocoon till spring. There are conditions where it is necessary for five or more members of a family to sleep on the same bed-spring without a mattress and in clothing worn all day. Some come from

families living in one room or in a garage, or in a shack. The children themselves are undernourished, in poor health, or have an active illness.

Should these be taught the love of learning? Or should they be taught habits of cleanliness, methods of the preparation of adequate diets, methods of preventing physical and mental illness? It would not be a teacher but an ogre who would begin with the love of learning.

Frequently, to begin with the love of learning means defeat. Sidney Hook describes a teaching situation of his. A group of boys, disciplinary problems, were crowded into one room, euphemistically called an opportunity class. The intention of the school was to get rid of them as soon as the law permitted. One youngster had a freshly stitched knife slash from ear to mouth. "Some guy insulted me mudder," he explained. "My pawses hurt" is a second sample of their English. No attempt was made to teach them. It was hoped merely to keep them quiet. Because it was impossible to keep them quiet, Sidney Hook began to teach. He did not begin with the love of learning, but with baseball, which served as a kind of religion for these boys. They ate, slept, argued, and dreamed baseball. With this as a beginning the boys learned to read by reading the sports page; they learned to speak English by talking about games; they learned to write by reporting baseball; they learned the elementary process of arithmetic by computing the standing of players, teams, leagues; they learned to behave by seeing the necessity of rules in a game. So were they led out of the desert.

And what does the love of learning frequently mean? It can mean, and has meant, a love for the professor's or teacher's specialty—factoring, parsing, declining, counting vowels, collecting snails or puppy-dogs' tails.

But is there a love for learning at all? It must be what impelled Socrates to search for the wisdom which he sought so desperately, demanding of each sophist "Do you really know?" It must be that to which Aristotle refers when he writes, "Cognition is in our eyes a thing of beauty and worth." In Giordano Bruno it occurs as "*Nam tangente Deo fervidus ignis eris.*" Kierkegaard quotes Lessing: "Father, I am grateful for this partial truth, and I am

content to leave final truth for Thee alone." Santayana has Democritus say, "Wisdom is sharper than a sword and only the brave can love her." Yes, the love of learning has burned in many a heart and lighted many a path.

What of the child who comes to school ready for this love? Are there teachers who can show him the way? They are rare. The chances that the child will meet them are small. There is in school systems a kind of anti-intellectualism which is not favorable to the development of this love. Many teachers do not have it themselves; the term is meaningless though they mouth it. They cannot implant the seed they do not possess. Because scholarship is not possible to many, it is therefore declared valueless.

Possibly educationists are responsible. Possibly they are not scholars themselves. Possibly they do not wish to be scholars but only wish to produce scholars. The results of these possibilities, if they be true, may be startling. The writer witnessed a class in the philosophy of Education. The teacher was an expert. She knew no philosophy at all, educational or uneducational, but she "had the technique of asking questions!" Thorndike tells of a graduate student whose thinking was similar; the student presented his thesis as completely original because he had read absolutely nothing about the topic. If this happens only in Education courses, it is a thing for which to be grateful; all is not yet lost. Certainly, only those who possess treasures of mind can enchant the student.

IV

Professional requirements. Who has these treasures? Who can teach? The search for a good teacher is difficult. Sometimes the finding of a good teacher is unfortunate for him. Good teachers, like Lovett, can be kept unpromoted for many years because they refuse to sacrifice personal integrity. Others are not recognized for a long time, like Santayana. Even these have been lucky; exile and death met those less fortunate.

Nevertheless, courses in Education perform several laudable functions. They eliminate many of those unfitted to teach because there is some opportunity to observe them. Often practice teaching is not ideally carried out. Possibly an apprenticeship of two or three years to a master-teacher could be a solution. Master-teach-

ers are rare; difficult to find, difficult to recognize. Yet there is some good in the practice-teaching of today; at least a start is made; the teacher is certified. Certification does not produce an ideal teacher, but at least a minimum has been met. This teacher will teach the child although the teacher himself has much to learn, and it is to be reasonably expected that no harm will come to the child. No one would take a stranger and place him in an operating room to perform; no one would take a stranger and place in his hands the life and mind of a child. Courses in Education, practice teaching, certification, furnish some assurance; just as a medical license assures us that the man removing our appendix is not in actuality a shoemaker.

Further, courses in Education seek to produce good teachers. Whatever is done can be done better with intelligence and care. Medical men are better today than they were in 1900 because of medical schools. The "born" doctor is a better doctor because he has had a chance to develop in a situation closer to the ideal rather than "reading" medicine as an apprentice. The "born" teacher has a chance to develop; at least he has had some experience with what is considered good procedure; he learns how good teachers taught before him; he may even meet some of these teachers.

Courses in Education do not seek to produce great teachers. No one would eliminate courses in physics because they cannot produce great physicists. No one would eliminate courses in medicine because they cannot produce great physicians. Great teachers teach themselves; they point the way; some may be capable of following them once the way is shown. In this sense teaching is an art to be approached. Santayana, studying in Germany, was one of the few who was not enthralled by German scholarship and German method, but he speaks of Paulsen as teaching Greek ethics with "sweet reasonableness." In turn Santayana's students moved him to tears with their applause at the end of a series of lectures; they speak today of his fine luminous mind. Thomas Merton pays tribute to the teaching of Mark Van Doren of Columbia. Could courses in Education produce such teachers? Probably not; Dewey, who wrote so much on educational method, apparently was not a stimulating classroom teacher, for he put many of his students to sleep.

Education requirements are not excessive. A man who is capable should meet them. A college professor who wished to teach in the public schools could meet them easily. After all, a bookish profession is used to continuous study. Then, too, a college professor need not make a good teacher in the public schools. It is conceivable that some college or university teachers may not be especially suited to teaching in the elementary school; some may not be fit to teach there. There are, however, irritating requirements pushed through by pressure groups—such as local history or local laws.

To hurl the charge of "theorists" is to hurl a boomerang. Theorists in Education are as necessary as they are in other fields. Dewey points out that Greek philosophy rose out of the need for a theory of education. No advance is possible without theory. And it cannot be maintained, as Schopenhauer pointed out, that it's all right in theory but won't work out in practice. If it's all right in theory, it must work.

Educationists are described as vested interests with "swollen" enrollments. A cracker-barrel psychologist may point out that the crux of the difficulty could be found in the phrase "swollen" enrollments; not having a cracker-barrel, we will refrain from pressing the point. It may seem more desirable to concentrate on the production of quality in teachers, rather than quantity. It is, however, difficult to do so when even this quantity is insufficient to staff the schools which are now closed for lack of teachers.

The charge of sophistry is brought forth—vested interests who teach for money. The charge is an unwelcome one. In a broader sense, it is too often true of those who teach. Witness how few teachers defy or resist a tyrannical, noxious force. An evil flame may consume the land, but teachers go on cutting their bread and butter. There may be a thousand reasons why they do this, but that they do is undeniable. *Wissenschaft* becomes *Brotwissen-schaft*; *Professor* becomes *Brotfresser*; the unhappy metamorphosis is complete; Protagoras lives again.

In a narrower sense, a specialty may be emphasized at the expense of the student. This is true of many fields but cannot be justified in any. Perhaps educationists offend more in this way. They view the field too narrowly. In their zeal for Education,

they forget education; they forsake the kingdom for a province. Goethe thought there could be no poorer teacher than the one who knows only what he teaches. The education of teachers (teachers and not trainers) should be liberal. It would help to prevent intellectual provincialism.

"Those who can, do; those who can't, teach." "Those who can, teach; those who can't, teach Education." Possibly these two are irrefutable; possibly they are based in being, as Aristotle might say. But there is another proposition, handwriting on the wall which strikes fear into the heart of student and educationist alike: "Those who can't teach, try to."

THE STRANGLEHOLD TIGHTENS

By PAUL R. BEALL

The Pennsylvania State College

Harold L. Clapp's argument in *The Stranglehold on Education*¹ was wise and true, we thought, though we wished at the time that even more of his available documentation might have originated within the contra view.

We submit that if such further evidence were needed, *A Reply* by Professor David C. Malcolm² has supplied it. Were this a legal disputation, Clapp should append Malcolm's writing to his article and merely add his demurrer, which is to say (taking some liberty with the exactness of legal definition), "We accept your case and submit it proves ours." But this is not a legal disputation. The judges in the matter lack a common frame of reference, since if Malcolm's contentions are true, the educationists are sure that a teacher must devote a "lion's share of his four college years" to the study of Education, or how to teach, while their colleagues in "the academic fields" (who also teach) place more emphasis on substance. In this situation the communicative channels are blocked by barriers of mutual miscomprehension. When an authority on Shakespeare talks with an expert on the teaching of Shakespeare, their chance to have a meeting of the minds (to communicate) is reduced approximately to the limitations of sign language.

Still, all must agree that the effort in discussing this subject is worth while, since light may be shed upon the issues involved. In any event, the discussion is stimulating.

We are convinced that Professor Malcolm is sincere. But we think that his conclusions result in a tragic waste of time and human resources. (Let us hope that our views will not earn for

¹ Summer, 1949 *Bulletin* of the American Association of University Professors, Vol. 35, No. 2, pp. 335-348.

² Autumn, 1949 *Bulletin* of the American Association of University Professors, Vol. 35, No. 3, pp. 504-511.

us the labels "reactionary" or "authoritarian," or make us proponents of such teaching methods as would most effectively implement the wicked designs of an Adolph Schickelgruber.)

Professor Malcolm writes that he would indeed use, as the best method, a system of authority, if his purpose were to teach such lies as discredit democracies and vilify Jews. We are puzzled by the logic here. Why would not the most effective teaching method for the indoctrination of evil have some merit (as a method) if the teacher's purpose were virtuous? Surely it cannot be that Professor Malcolm's distrust of authority stems from a purpose to match his pedagogical disapproval of evil (which he recognizes easily) with a determination to teach, on the other hand, that there are no sure, known, proven goodnesses, or acceptable beliefs? This is most improbable. Certainly we admit to a number of beliefs, and stay content, perhaps naïvely, that they are adequately proven. Our beliefs rest on a variety of authorities: Artists, Prophets, Poets, Philosophers, Scientists, and even some (but not all) statistical studies made by Psychologists.

First, we believe (and no Educator believes more ardently) that democracy is the best way now known, and that no purpose supersedes the public school system's responsibility to produce wise and good citizens who will compose the successfully functioning democratic state. But we believe further, as some may not, that any accomplishment of goodness or excellency ever achieved by man in any field of his activities rests fundamentally upon that man's personal self-control and discipline. We lament, as frivolous and wasteful of precious time, education which, whatever else it may do, fails to inculcate self-control and discipline. Edward H. Warren, late beloved member of the Harvard Law Faculty, delighted us when he wrote:

I believe in discipline. From boyhood days on, I have sought to discipline my own mind, pen, and tongue. And throughout my service on the Law Faculty I have sought to discipline the minds, pens, and tongues of the students. I have never suffered fools gladly, and regard such sufferance as mischievous.

We also believe that modern Psychology is one of the ways to-

ward new and better methods in education, but doubt if it alone is *the* way. We suspect, for example, that the basic tenet of determinism (no free will) may be still only a theory. So much for our own foolhardy beliefs.

Now Professor Malcolm insists that honest scrutiny makes inescapable the conclusion that *how* one teaches is more important than what one teaches. This seems patently too silly to refute, but suppose a case. A teacher using the *how* method most approved by Professor Malcolm teaches his students with great skill and success that minority groups with dark skins are inferior and deservedly discriminated against. Is *how* then more important than what? Nonsense, of course, as it would be nonsense to belittle the teacher's imperative need to be skilled in teaching, or to minimize the teacher's need to realize that his students are individuals, or to overlook the teacher's need to understand that disciplines are pillars that support desirable activities and not ends in themselves.

But we do not teach teaching nor write writing nor speak speaking. A substance is involved. A substance that is true or false, good or evil, beautiful or ugly.

Professor Malcolm is our friend and colleague in the goodly fellowship of teaching and we share with him his poor opinion of the hide-bound, deductivistic, unthinking authoritarian who lives by rules in order to eliminate the need for thinking. But how would our brother define an authoritarian? He says there are three modern views on education, two wrong and one (his) correct; there is one rock upon which the method for an ideal education will be built, and Psychology is it; he contends that there is one method of education which will save democracy (his method). We submit that if so firm a stand as this is not tinctured with authority, it at least expresses magnificent self-confidence.

Two questions bother us: Prior to John Dewey, statistical techniques, the typewriter, and modern professional educationists—all good things, were well-educated people (and good democrats) nonexistent? And, since the advent of modern public school educationists, have we produced a superior citizenry? Does the modern product have more peace of mind, is he saner, wiser, more tolerant, a more successful partner in marriage, a

better democrat? Our slight knowledge of the world about us gives us pause.

As a college teacher we live with the high school product happily because he is self-confident and healthy, but sadly because he is not ready for college. His time has been wasted. He can "let himself go" beautifully, but his manners are not gracious, he cannot concentrate nor study. He cannot read accurately nor write correctly, nor spell, nor do arithmetic. His feelings are hurt and he is bitterly depressed when he bumps his head against the proposition of "no easy way." He gets through college only because we spend most of the first two years of college on high school and grammar school work. This need not be.

It isn't possible that either the educationists or the academicians can be entirely wrong. Surely a person may be well-taught and at the same time taught something. Cannot we keep the fine idealism and methods of Dewey which cherish the rights of the student's personality and individuality (and respect his limitations) *and yet give that student the basic disciplinary tools?* The answer is yes. But this goal will be achieved, we think, by some tempering of Professor Malcolm's conviction that "how to teach" is education's first problem. We suspect that education's first problem is one with mankind's ageless first problem—what is wise and good and true and beautiful?

THE PROFESSOR AND THE GOVERNING BOARD

By ALAN REYNOLDS THOMPSON

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This paper is written to urge that the American Association of University Professors make it a fundamental policy to seek legal representation of the faculty on the governing board of every college and university in the country.

The Spring, 1948 issue of the Association's *Bulletin* carries the Report of the Association's Committee T on the Place and Function of Faculties in College and University Government, as presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association in February of that year. The first paragraph of the report states as a "basic concept" of the Association's "philosophy" "that the relationship of teachers, administrative officers, and trustees of colleges and universities is that of associates in a joint enterprise for the common good." Furthermore it quotes, from the 1937 report of the Committee, the following five points, which state "the philosophy of the government of higher education which has been held by the members of the Committee from its inception":

I. There ought to be close understanding between the faculty and the board of trustees, and to this end agencies other than the president are required for joint conference between the two bodies.

II. The general faculty should participate with the trustees in the nomination of a president, and the faculty of a school or division should have a voice in selecting the dean who presides over that school.

III. Administrative officers should have the advice of representative faculty committees in matters of educational policy, and specifically in matters touching appointments, promotions and dismissals, and in making budgets.

IV. The faculty of the university at large or its authorized representatives, and the faculty of each college in the university,

should have ultimate legislative power over educational policies within the jurisdiction of that faculty, and should control its own organization and its committees.

V. The departments of instruction, however organized, should be consultative bodies and should exercise what is in effect a collective authority over the teaching and research under their jurisdiction.

The report reviews the work of the Committee since its organization in 1917 and the results of questionnaires sent out to determine how far in fact American institutions conform to these principles and what the trend is in relation to them. The Chairman of the Committee concludes that "a slow improvement in academic consultative procedures is probably taking place."

The principles stated by the Committee assume throughout that the faculty shall continue to be *separate* from administration and governing board. Such words as "associates" and "participation" do not suggest more than mere consultation when viewed in the context, and in relation to the existing organization of American universities. Furthermore, without definite legal rights, consultation, where existing, is and will remain a grace extended by the administration—and withdrawable at will. The statement says nothing of legal rights. It is, indeed, entirely silent about ways and means. No doubt this silence is proper for a statement of a "philosophy," but ways and means are the essence of the problem as a practical matter. Is it the Committee's expectation that enough "good will" and virtuous presidents will exist so that gradually there will be established an extralegal tradition? The Committee chairman, with due academic caution, thinks it "probable" that a "slow improvement" is taking place. Can the Committee, or the Association, do nothing to speed up the improvement? But even if the improvement were rapid, can we have any assurance that it will be permanent, unless embodied in law? Is it not evident that when the community is involved in a crisis and emotions are high, good will and wisdom may vanish, and the uncloaked legal fact will again be laid bare, as often in the past—that the faculty are the employees of their boards, and get concessions from their boards only as a matter of courtesy or expediency?

To be called "employees" annoys us, for we find compensation for our dependency in the sense of our academic dignity. A wise administrator treats his proud and individualistic teachers with so much deference and respect that he seldom reminds them of his real power over their salaries and their very jobs. It is easy for them to forget or ignore it, most of the time. But we as members of a learned profession should be freer of wishful thinking and rationalization than the average man, and ready to call a spade a spade. We need not label ourselves the hired help of our boards: the connotations of "hired help" are wrong. But we *are* their employees.

II

As the members of the Association must well know, this legal relationship of teaching staff as employees and a lay board as employer exists to any extent only in the United States, and there only as a historical accident. The first colonial colleges were formed on the model of the English universities, where, as is generally the case in Europe, the faculty legally governs itself. But this plan was soon abandoned. "Three influences leading to this result may have been the proprietary instinct of the founders, the clerical desire for orthodoxy, and the weakness of the position of the tutors. . . . In short, the reason for the divergence of American college government from the English standard was not a difference in political or educational theory, but rather the historical accident that the sponsors or organizers were teachers in the one case and nonteachers in the other."¹

Once established, control by lay boards became practically universal. But lay boards must have advice. Hence they were forced to appoint an expert who could give it. This expert became an intermediary officer between them and their faculty. The development of that peculiarly American institution, the "strong" president, followed inevitably. Through delegated authority he became in fact the direct employer of the faculty,

¹ George L. Bogert, "Faculty Participation in American University Government," Spring, 1945 *Bulletin of American Association of University Professors*, Vol. 31, No. 1, p. 75.

and in himself alone the real government of the institution.¹ He also functions, theoretically at least, as the representative of the faculty to the board, and in fact he often performs this function with great wisdom and ability. But the legal set-up under which he acts by its very nature tends to put him on the side of ultimate authority. He is "the administration," and therefore a barrier inevitably exists between him and the teaching staff.

The American tradition in politics and business offers only partial support to this form of organization. The President of the United States, unlike the chief officer in parliamentary democracies, is a "strong" president. He is, however, responsible to the people, who elect him, whereas the president of a university is responsible legally only to his board. Business corporations are run by boards who delegate authority to general managers. Employees must deal with these managers. But employees of business corporations are not limited in these dealings to petition; they have organized into unions and forged the weapon of the strike to enforce their demands. They possess "bargaining power" as a consequence. (In saying this I am not implying that we should do likewise; I am noting facts. As a professional guild we have imponderable but powerful forces on our side, and if we use them well we should not need to resort to the crude methods of industrial warfare.)

Obviously, individual control and responsibility make for efficiency. A single man with power enough can act with dispatch and "get things done." This is a state of things which we Americans are conditioned to admire in business, if not in politics. Yet obviously also, there are long-run drawbacks to any dictatorship, business, political, or academic, even when benevolent. And dictatorships do not tend naturally toward benevolence. "Power corrupts. . . ." We are all sufficiently aware of these matters from our experience of recent history.

Our nation was founded by men keenly aware of such dangers, and we pride ourselves on our freedom. It is, therefore, a curious anomaly that we are so content with autocracy in many of our nonpolitical institutions. This anomaly is nowhere more curious

¹ J. E. Kirkpatrick reviews this historical development at length in *The American College and Its Rulers* (New York, 1926).

than among that most individualistic class of men, the professors. In a quarter-century in the profession, I have scarcely ever heard a colleague question the established order which makes him legally an employee of a board of nonprofessionals—and of nonprofessionals generally chosen for reasons of politics, finance, or prestige, almost never for their scholarship or teaching experience. When I have myself raised the question, I have been generally met with incomprehension, indifference, or the suspicious and startled looks of those who suspect a “dangerous radical” in their midst. Yet it is hardly a very revolutionary thing to ask why the people who do the work of an institution, and who alone know what should be done to improve it, are excluded from its legal management. In Europe faculty management is so far from revolutionary that it is literally medieval.

The question has of course been raised often over the years, but in voices seldom louder than a murmur. Two recent murmurs from our own *Bulletin* are examples.

One is from a professor in my own university, Charles L. Mowat, who says:

One element vitally concerned in the university is...always absent from the deliberations of the board of regents: the faculty. It would be well if the point of view of the faculty could be put by faculty representatives named to the board as nonvoting members, as is the case at Cornell University. If the alumni can be represented on the board, then why not...?¹

The other is from a member of a governing board, Ordway Tead of the Board of Higher Education of New York City:

I venture, wholly on my personal responsibility, to raise the question as to whether the presence of faculty representatives without vote at Board meetings may not perhaps be an eventually desirable step.²

In passing, one is impelled to ask, Why “nonvoting?” Mr. Mowat and Mr. Tead both assume, or seem to assume, that it is

¹ The State University and the Public,” Summer, 1949 *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, Vol. 35, No. 2, p. 221.

² “Faculty-Administrative Relationships in the Colleges of New York: A Ten-Year Appraisal,” Spring, 1948 *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, Vol. 34, No. 1, p. 74.

concession enough to give the faculty second-class membership by letting them sit in. If they are qualified to listen, and presumably to talk also, and even be listened to, there seems to be no conceivable reason why they are not also qualified to vote. But this point, and also the practical problem of deciding how large a representation is to be admitted, how it is to be chosen, and for what terms, are matters of detail that should be disposed of easily enough if the fundamental right to representation is once conceded. Certainly the number of faculty members should represent the faculty adequately. What the adverb "adequately" means is debatable, but one member would seem too few, and three members a working minimum.

III

It is understandable that few of us are inclined to challenge the existing order when all is serene. But dirty weather tests the ship, and the crew too. The present national tension about communism has brought crises to several colleges and universities, some of which have been reported in this *Bulletin*. It has brought a crisis to the institution of which I am a member, the University of California. Though I have thought about the matters of this paper for many years, it took this crisis to stir me to write them down. We all, at the University of California, have been forced to consider the first principles of our position and re-evaluate the meaning of academic freedom.

In what I have to say about my institution I speak only for myself. For various reasons I have not discussed this paper with any of my colleagues. (I do not imply that many of them would not agree with me, in whole or in part.)

The case of the University of California is an outstanding argument for my thesis. It is outstanding for the very reason that probably no university in the country has in recent years come closer to meeting the five principles of the Association's Committee T. Certainly principles III to V have been notably complied with here. Faculty committees or representatives advise the Administration on matters of educational policy, on all appointments, promotions, and dismissals, and on budgetary

matters. I understand that almost without exception their recommendations are followed. No member of the faculty with tenure may be dismissed without a proper hearing before his colleagues. (This right is, of course, a concession of the Board of Regents which theoretically can at any time be withdrawn, though such an action is very unlikely.) In large measure the Academic Senate controls its educational policies, and the departments control theirs. There could hardly be a more friendly and cooperative relationship than has for years existed between our faculty and president. The latter's personality and policies have made this happy state possible and have fostered it in many ways, personal and organizational. Testimony of members of our faculty who have had wide experience in other institutions puts the University of California at the top in academic freedom and faculty responsibility. Even in respect to the first of the five principles—that agencies other than the president should exist for joint conference between the faculty and the Board of Regents—the faculty has within the past year gained the notable concession of being allowed to send a committee to confer with the Regents direct.

In short, for many years the faculty here has run its own business with a sense of independence and full responsibility. We had become so habituated to freedom from arbitrary administrative interference or intimidation that when we read about the troubles of our confreres elsewhere we felt sympathy, of course, but also, I fear, a certain degree of smug satisfaction. We, at least, were safe. . . .

But, suddenly, last spring, we discovered that we were not safe.

The first intimation took the form of a notice from the Secretary of the Regents which appeared in the May, 1949 *Faculty Bulletin* (a news sheet distributed throughout the University): "The Regents of the University of California have directed me to include in acceptance letters, when 1949-50 appointments are made, an oath of allegiance in the form to be set forth therein, and that all faculty and employees must take the oath as part of the acceptance. . . . Salary checks cannot be released until acceptance letters have been returned to this office properly signed before a notary public."

It will be noted that the faculty had not been consulted prior to this announcement, and that the wording of the oath is not included in it. Publication of the oath in the press enabled us to form our opinions about it. After faculty protest the second part of it was revised by the Regents and it was published in the July *Faculty Bulletin*. The first part is a conventional oath of allegiance, to the signing of which the faculty has made no protest: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support the Constitution of the United States and the Constitution of the State of California, and that I will faithfully discharge the duties of my office according to the best of my ability." This oath had already been required of new appointees since the war years. The second part, revised, reads: "I am not a member of the Communist Party or under any oath or a party to any agreement or under any commitment that is in conflict with my obligations under this oath."

In its earlier version this oath was so ambiguous that it might reasonably seem to condemn membership in any organization that demands obedience of its members. In its revised form it is definite enough, but proved still highly objectionable to the great majority of us. We agree unanimously with the Regents in wanting communism, as a subversive influence, kept out of the University. We disagree about the means. The oath was imposed without consultation. It seemed to imply that we, of all state employees, need special watching, since the standard oath was deemed insufficient for us. It was ineffective to the extent that a member of the Communist Party would presumably have no hesitation in denying his membership. But chief of all, it seemed to a great many of us to infringe on academic freedom.

Incidentally, I have been impressed in conversation and in reading newspaper comments by the difficulty the layman finds in understanding our opposition to such an oath. Even some of my colleagues see no objection. "You are against communism, aren't you? Then why do you object to swearing an oath to that effect?" Such people seem not to realize that the effectiveness of our work, unlike that of men in any other profession, depends directly on our entire freedom of thought and research. Waiving the question whether the oath in its final form is in

itself harmless, it is felt to constitute a precedent for other possible requirements. Academic freedom is not real freedom when it can be restricted by fiat of a governing board. To sign now, in the opinion of many, is greatly to weaken our position if at any future time other impositions should be attempted.

Other objections to the oath involving academic freedom are that it is a violation of an implied agreement of the Regents with the faculty to sound faculty opinion before acting on matters of educational policy, and a unilateral violation of the conditions of academic tenure. But my purpose is not to argue or even detail all these issues; it is to indicate the serious nature of the conflict.

The faculties on our campuses took the matter seriously enough. Meetings of the Academic Senate are usually thinly attended and almost always sedate if not downright dull. Meetings concerning the oath were packed into the largest available auditorium, speeches were made of a kind unprecedented for passion, force, and plain language, and strong resolutions were debated and voted. If the affair did no other good, it brought us together for the first time in many years as men and women, not professors, for genuine debate on a fundamental issue. It was a memorable experience.

After the modification of the oath failed to meet faculty acceptance, the Regents announced that an "equivalent" would be acceptable. (This "equivalent" has not been publicly defined, but seems to mean an affirmation disavowing communism.) And they agreed to meet with faculty representatives from the main campuses. Negotiations are now going on; salaries are being paid, and no action has been announced against nonjurors. The Board's concessions and willingness to negotiate have made a good impression, and by the time this paper is published the whole affair may have been settled. But however the matter ends, what has already happened is a demonstration for my argument.

A brochure published (November, 1949) by the American Civil Liberties Union of Northern California, entitled "Crisis at the University of California," says in part: "The Regents, without Faculty approval, have noted a change which fundamentally affects the status, the scholarship, the teaching, of every member

of the Faculty. And when, later, protest has been officially made, it has been officially denied. The plain fact is that the Faculty has no academic authority. It is ruled by the President who, in turn, is ruled by the Regents."

The last two sentences of this quotation state the case exactly. If there had been faculty representation on the Board at the time when the new oath was proposed, would the Board have acted as it did, hastily, without advice of the faculty? Would it have acted at all?

IV

If such things can happen here, *a fortiori* they can happen in institutions where the tradition of faculty independence and responsibility is weaker, and the faculty has less powers of public support. And once they have happened, face-saving, if not conviction, is bound to make any board slow to rescind its actions. In such circumstances, protest and respectful petition are singularly ineffective.

Only by sharing in the authority of the board can the faculty meet such dangers effectively. A positive assertion of faculty rights, and a constant pressure until those rights are made legal, gives us the strategic advantage of the offensive. It would put governing boards, for a change, on the defensive. It would require them to say "Why not?" and they would find difficulty in marshaling good reasons why not. My own inquiries have elicited singularly few reasons and poor ones. Justice and common sense should work with us to success, if we persist. Then the faculty would become a real—that is, a legal—"associate" in the "joint enterprise," and would have genuine safeguards for tenure and academic freedom even in times of national hysteria.

THE PROFESSOR'S NIGHTMARE

(To be sung petulantly by the college teacher whenever he encounters the businessman who asks him what he does with his spare time. With the usual apologies to W. S. Gilbert.)

When you're out of your mind from the pitiless grind of continuous
mental anxiety,
It's a bit of a bore to be treated once more as the laziest drone in
society
By a gibbering dunce who has never taught once, but who gaily
and glibly conjectures
That a prof's only care is the simple affair of delivering one or two
lectures;
For the fool never knows of the labor that goes into mixing peren-
nial new pills
To be taken thrice weekly and swallowed down meekly by unintel-
lectual pupils,
Or the nights on your hams with a hill of exams, imbecilic, inane,
and illegible,
While you solemnly try, with a blood-spattered eye, to dredge up
all the sense that is dredgible,
Or the usual bout when the marks are all out and your slumber
is suddenly sundered
By the griper who's grieved that the grade he received is a ninety
instead of a hundred!

When you ought to be home in your ivory dome, solitary, aloof, and
above life,
You're advising some student on how to be prudent in handling his
passionate love life,
Or taking a beating in faculty meeting, or suffering in a committee
Where the lesser I. Q.'s are expounding their views in a manner
presumably witty
(They contrive to extend a momentous agenda, on which they make
practic'ly no dent—

Though they sometimes atone with a mountainous groan that
brings forth the proverbial rodent);
When you've weathered their broils you are trapped in the toils of
a voluble feminine vulture
Who is crazy, my dear, for that subtle veneer that is freely con-
founded with culture,
And she'd certainly whoop if you'd talk to her group—well, it's
rather short notice—next Friday,
On a subject that's charming and not so alarming as Russia, the
Atom, or *My Day*!

When it's finally June, and it's never too soon, oh, it's then that the
teaching profession
Is exultantly free—to pursue that degree or instruct in the hot
summer session;
If you do get some time in a summery clime, you're too poverty-
stricken to fritter it,
So you sit in a nook with a serious book trying hard to keep up
with the literate;
You may possibly skip on an annual trip to New York, with a seat
in the gallery,
But you're occupied next with inditing a text to augment your
inadequate salary;
And you never dare think of succumbing to drink, though there's
plenty of whiskey and rum nigh,
For the word might leak out and get bandied about by the more
influential alumni!

When you're weak in the knees from some fatal disease and you
puff like an impotent grampus,
You've a chance to receive a sabbatical leave to prevent you from
dying on campus!

If you choose to inquire what abnormal desire keeps a scholar for
years in this blood, sweat, and tears for such pitiful pelf, well,
I've wondered myself—but I'm telling you this: that I take
it amiss when I meet a buffoon who re-echoes the tune that
this horrible mess is a pleasant recess from the strenuous
strife of a businessman's life and that I have been living in
clover!

Cyanide in his tea would be all right with me, but since murder is wrong, I have fashioned this song—which, thank Heaven, is finally over!

—WILLIAM W. WATT
Lafayette College

THE COLLEGE ADMINISTRATOR REVISITED¹

By THOMAS H. HAMILTON

Pennsylvania College for Women

A. A. Milne in a book called *The House at Pooh Corner* has an introductory paragraph to a chapter entitled, "In Which Rabbit Has a Busy Day and We Learn What Christopher Robin Does in the Mornings."

It was going to be one of Rabbit's busy days. As soon as he woke up he felt important, as if everything depended upon him. It was just the day for Organizing Something, or for Writing a Notice Signed Rabbit, or for Seeing What Everybody Else Thought About It. It was a perfect morning for hurrying round to Pooh and saying, "Very well, then, I'll tell Piglet," and then going to Piglet, and saying "Pooh thinks—but perhaps I'd better see Owl first." It was a Captainish sort of day, when everybody said, "Yes, Rabbit," and "No, Rabbit," and waited until he had told them.

Whenever I read this passage—and my five-year-old son sees that it is read frequently—my mind wanders over the college administrators of my acquaintance and I have to pause and chuckle, "Oh President Blank and Vice-President Dash and Dean Asterisk—thy name is Rabbit."

At the recent inauguration of Dr. Louis T. Benezet as President of this institution, Dr. Carter Davidson, President of Union College, enumerated some of the activities in which college presidents are expected to engage. Although it was amusing—at least we all laughed—to me there was a ring to the presentation and its acceptance by the audience that was most disturbing. Perhaps this was because I am unusually sensitive since it appears that there

¹ An address delivered to the Allegheny College Chapter of the American Association of University Professors on November 15, 1948.

is a tendency for those activities to seep down to the lower echelons. We may be forced to write off the college president as expendable, but when vice-presidents begin to go the same way the prospect becomes most alarming.

Dr. Davidson's remarks were accurate—alarmingly accurate, and as nearly as I could judge the general reaction was "Well, that's academic life." I don't agree with this acceptance of the inevitability of a given pattern. It seems likely that until college administrators rid themselves of irrelevant activities and return to their proper function, higher education will find it difficult to avoid being equally irrelevant and purposeless. You can hardly expect students to be concerned with attaining the objectives of the curriculum when they see the men honored by having been selected to administer the institution engaging in "busy work" which in the mind neither of God nor of man can possibly be related to the institution's objectives.

II

It is commonplace to observe that there is a two-way relationship between the social order and education. The former shapes the latter, and I hope that at least to a degree education modifies the social order. It would appear that the primary reason why college administrators so frequently are useless or worse is that the social order has managed to shape them in its own image. An unintended commentary on this situation was delivered by one of my few wealthy friends who said admiringly, "He's a wonderful university president. You can't tell him from a businessman."

Specifically, it seems to me, we have accepted a concept of efficiency almost universally held in the world of business; we have then equated efficiency with goodness. The syllogism goes something like this: Efficiency is the accomplishment of objectives in the shortest possible time with the least expenditure of men and materials. It is a good thing to be efficient. Therefore, the good college administrator accomplishes objectives in the shortest possible time with the least expenditure of men and materials. This separation of results and instruments, of ends and means, is of course nonsense. It is unrealistic and misleading. The pur-

poses are more important than the instruments; they come first and largely determine the nature of the instruments. Yet many college administrators are so means-conscious that the problem of purposes never gets their attention. As a group we are becoming more and more effective at achieving means for the accomplishments of ends which may or may not be proper ones for higher education.

By now I have at least intimated that some college administrators do not make sense. I must hasten to add that many do. All should. In the remainder of the paper, I propose to outline the activities in which the administrator should engage and then suggest that there are now certain pursuits which the administrator can quit following without damage to his personal reputation or his institution and whose abandonment will provide him the time and energy to perform his proper function.

It seems clear to me that the college administrator should find time for certain things. In the first place he should find time to be a man in the finest and best sense of the word. This involves among other things his having an opportunity to be with his family. Under present conditions the plight of the college administrator's wife is in many cases a sad one and that of his children not much better. The wife has the choice of developing a hobby (and rest assured it must be a respectable one) or of becoming a neurotic. There also must be an opportunity for the college administrator to read and reflect in areas not directly pertinent to his position. We are in a bad way trying to teach students the value of reading as a recreational and cultural avocation when college officials have no time for such a pursuit. And finally, the college administrator should have time to have some fun in terms which he himself sets, and not the forced relaxation of group activities which he is compelled to attend in terms of his position.

The college administrator in addition must find time to be a teacher. If he has time to teach only one student this should be done, for the teaching process is so fundamental to education that an administrator once released from it is almost sure to lose touch with the essence of the situation with which he should be most familiar.

And the administrator must have time to retain scholarly interests. It is probably too much to expect that his scholarly output will remain as high as that of faculty members not concerned with administration, but it would not seem too much to expect an occasional well-done paper and certainly we are entitled to expect that he will be cognizant of the most significant developments in the area of his scholarly attainments.

He must find time to talk with faculty members. Simply saying that the college administrator's door is always open is not enough. It would be helpful if some of the talking took place in the faculty member's office rather than the administrator's office. It seems important that this talk, at least part of it, be given over to what would be considered by the efficiency experts as purposeless intellectual rambling. Only in this way is he likely to get an understanding of the faculty members with whom he is to work, and learn something in areas where learning is important but the probability for that learning unpredictable.

The administrator must have time actually to administer that part of the institution's program which is entrusted to him.

He must have an opportunity for reflecting on the purposes of the institution, the validity of those purposes, and the extent to which his own program squares with those purposes.

III

There probably would be little disagreement that college administrators should devote energies to the activities thus far considered, but almost inevitably there would be a cry that time will not permit, and that we must be content with college officials who are neither men, teachers, scholars, nor thoughtful administrators. I propose to suggest how it might be possible for this time to be secured.

The college administrator can limit the amount of his time which he devotes to public speaking, appearances, and conferences. The assumption that every time a college administrator makes a speech he creates good will for the institution which he represents needs careful examination. I never have heard of such a speech that did not irritate at least one person and in some instances more

were alienated than attracted. It is difficult to justify turning college administrators into sophistic circuit riders on the assumption that such a procedure will create good will for the institution. Certainly there are public appearances which must be made by a college administrator, but it seems to me that there are certain criteria by which the proper can be distinguished from the improper. A college administrator can make a speech or an appearance or organize a conference for any of three reasons: to interpret his institution or higher education in general to its constituency; to speak as a scholar; or to find money.

Even in interpreting higher education I would say that there needed to be a somewhat different concept of the constituency. To mention only one example of how the problem of interpretation has been misconceived, we saw on election day the political power of organized labor. It seems certain that one of the most important things for the privately endowed institution in the future will be the maintenance of the present status of tax exemption. This will be decided on the political level; so it would seem proper for college administrators to try to interpret their institutions to those who hold political power. Yet it has been my experience that colleges and college administrators are highly suspect with most labor unions and leaders. We have spent most of our time interpreting higher education to groups whose political power may be waning.

It would seem proper for a college administrator to continue to speak as a scholar, but this, of course, presumes that he retains at least some of his status as a scholar. One of the meanest anthologies that I have seen is a book called *What College Presidents Say*. This is a collection of excerpts from presidential addresses. Almost none of these would qualify under the scholarly heading, and many of them could hardly be said to qualify as worth while under any heading.

A public appearance is always proper for an administrator if it seems likely that it will lead the way to funds. Only the most impractical would expect the college president in particular and other administrators in general to be uninterested in this problem. Even here careful thought needs to be applied to the problem and such an application of thought is not now in evidence. I have

some sympathy with Chancellor Hutchins' criticism of the President's Commission on Higher Education for its approximate acceptance of the status quo, and the desire for more money to enlarge the existing picture. We would be in a better position to seek funds if there were not evidence that considerable waste is prevalent in higher education. The college administrator should examine his own program to determine whether or not money is being spent on the teaching of things better left to other institutions or not taught at all. Our hands are not too clean as we jingle the tin cup in the market places when duplication and wasted effort are so obvious. Part of the solution to the problem of finance involves spending wisely what we have.

It must be observed that while most college administrators are concerned with finances, no one really knows how money is raised by colleges and universities. It is amazing to discover that the things that cause individuals to give to colleges and universities remain largely unanalyzed. The use of the college administrator's time in the raising of money is at best guided at the present by guesswork. Although it is appropriate that college administrators speak, appear, and confer in order to raise money, it would seem wise for some of the energy to be directed toward an analysis of how money is raised.

This has been concerned with the problem of public appearances at which the college administrator is the central figure. There is a second way in which the college administrator can save time for more important things. It involves those meetings which he attends as a participant. First among these is the weekly meeting of the luncheon clubs. If good will is built, attendance is usually justified. But unless the college administrator takes the luncheon club vows and seriously devotes himself to the order, he is likely, in one way or another, to commit some heresy which will damn him in the eyes of many so his presence may cause more ill-will than would his absence.

If a year's moratorium were declared on national and regional meetings dealing with the problems of higher education, little harm would be done and great advantage might ensue. There is considerable doubt in my mind as to the value of these meetings when the time involved is compared with what the administrator

might be doing with that time if the academic folkways did not compel his attendance.

IV

The administrator could well stop being so "Rabbity" in his constant assumption that everything depends on him. The validity of the principle of delegation in the field of administration is so well established that discussion of it is unnecessary, but it is my impression that college administrators violate this principle more than any other comparable group. Closely allied to if not identical with the possibility of time being saved by delegation is the fact that clerk's work should be done by clerks. Many college administrators devote their time to the straightening out of petty details and fail to concern themselves with major responsibilities. And here those who deal with the administration can be of assistance. It should be obvious to faculty members that while they have every right to an administrator's time and a great deal of it—not only on immediate issues but for general discussion—yet discussion with the Dean as to why a faculty office is cleaned on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday rather than Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday makes no sense.

Finally, the college administrator should let the least important things go undone. This, of course, takes us back to the fact that he must have sufficient time for reflection to establish criteria as to what is important.

It may be that our society will not permit the administrator to reform so drastically the concept of his proper function. If this be true, it may be necessary for colleges and universities to employ an administrator whose function is solely ceremonial. I cannot think of a good title for him although obviously it would have to be a fancy one. He should be handsome and preferably graying at the temples. He would have to be an able speaker as far as delivery is concerned and capable of reporting back to the institution what was said when he wasn't speaking. He wouldn't need to be more than a high-school graduate—for where he's going that will enable him to understand all that is said. I hope that college administrators will in this case be able to change the

social order rather than be forced to establish such a parasitical functionary.

I want to thank you for listening to a peeve of mine that I have expanded into a paper. Your chairman has been good enough to ask me to spend some time with you tomorrow discussing your curriculum, but I must get back to Pittsburgh, for tomorrow I am speaking to the Garden Club on "Beauty in Floral Arrangements," and Mrs. Hamilton has made it clear that she intends for me to have dinner with her at least once this month.

HAST ANY PHILOSOPHY IN THEE, SHEPHERD?

By CHARLES F. SAWHILL VIRTUE

University of Maine

For more than twenty years I have not had a day, I think, without some thought about some philosophical concept, or some awareness of philosophical generalizations applicable to practical or theoretical concerns. This does not mean that I have lived primarily in abstractions. I have lived as a human being does, undergoing all sorts of immediate and mediated experiences. I have been a member of a family, which is in itself an intricate and formative set of experiences. I have listened to innumerable lectures. I have taught—what a profoundly illuminating and baffling experience!—hundreds of students. I have had varied and extensive contacts with businessmen. I have shared the common destiny of an American in the twentieth century. In all this experience philosophy has played a part; what part is not at all clear to me.

Philosophy is not merely my professional concern; it is the matrix of all my critical thinking and has unknowable interactions with my practical and emotional life. It is so inextricably interwoven with my religious life that my response to a sermon, or my participation in a public ritual, has almost always a kind of duality as the concepts apparently entertained by the speaker or implied by the ritual get re-stated in my mind in more rationalistic form, and are integrated into my own rationalization of the orthodox tradition. The same is true of economic and political ideas. I understand such matters as taxation and community planning, partly in the common-sense and practical ways, and partly in terms of John Locke and Plato and John Dewey.

So far as I can tell, I am not an original thinker. I have made no discoveries. Such spontaneity as I do possess is appreciative

and synthetic. I do seem to be sensitive to a great variety of phenomena; and I do occasionally make connections between diverse data—for example esthetic and moral ideas—which are original in the sense that I do not remember having borrowed the insight from someone else. I have some talent for generalization, and some adeptness in thinking of apt illustrations of general principles. These are indispensable traits in undergraduate teaching. I think they are probably also useful in abstract thinking, as they give drive and movement to thought and help to keep it close to what common sense conceives of as reality.

Philosophy is a matter of the intellect in the sense that it is always an attempt to conceptualize. It never merely enjoys or merely contemplates. It uses whatever methods it can to observe, analyze, and systematize. Philosophy is like science—it is scientific—in this respect. But philosophy is not wholly intellectual; it is also a matter of temperament. The kind of observation that the philosopher makes varies as the kind of observation the artist makes varies. There is a qualitative variability in philosophy which is not characteristic of science. The reason for the qualitative differences in the thought of different philosophers does not lie in the greater variety of data of philosophy, but rather in the variability of the relative importance of any datum, or of any kind of data, for different philosophers; and this variability is a function of the total personality of the philosopher.

The differences between philosophers are not like the differences between scientists; for upon being shown rationally adequate data, the scientists will finally compose their theoretical differences, while the philosophers, given equally adequate data, will continue to judge the data differently, and, while rejoicing in common data, will also rejoice in the enrichment of their disagreement.

I have learned in these years of living with philosophy the truth of Fichte's dictum that the kind of philosopher one is depends upon the kind of man one is. This superficially circular aphorism is not to be dismissed as the basis of merely one kind of philosophy—voluntaristic or other subjectivistic idealism. It is as near an ultimate insight into the nature of systematic thought as may be attained. The reason why some philosophers are realists and others pragmatists is that beyond their purely rational experience—

their training and the subtlety of their pursuit of rational explanation—they bring different personalities to bear. That there are intimate reactions between the rational and the extra-rational processes of their minds is beyond dispute. One has only to watch a competently trained mind assimilate an argument—for example, a proposed instance of teleological process and its metaphysical implications—to see that the total impact of the argument is a function of the general quality of the mind judging it.

If this view of philosophy be valid, then the philosophical enterprise is, *par excellence*, an index of what human experience can be. It is not merely an enterprise by itself, having its own characteristic form; it is a revelation of what it is to be a human being. How one interprets this revelation is another matter. At least it is true that as we become reflective we do philosophize, and in the process we find ourselves.

II

Philosophy is always concerned with two problems, and the problems are inseparable: What kind of *validity* has my experience? and What *is* it that I experience? If one insists on an activist form of these questions, asking, What do I do when I experience? and What process is it that I experience? one has not changed the problems essentially, though the technique of answering the questions changes.

The first—the epistemological—question has the inescapable condition of universal subjectivity, even though the intent be to find an objectivistic answer. I can determine the validity of supposed knowledge only by appeal to my own experience. I do not have to suppose myself in possession of all scientific experience, or to be capable of all moral or religious experience, to judge those kinds of experience; but I do have to appeal to the way my own mind apparently works.

When I ask whether I have any genuinely valid knowledge, I am constrained to reply that it seems indisputable to me that I do *know* some things, however subject to qualification most of my supposed knowledge may be. I do indubitably have sense experience. This is a world in which sense experience occurs. I do know that two

and two make four and that a proposition cannot be both true and false. I know that I must eat and breathe to live; and I know that meanness breeds unhappiness.

I know these things in different ways. They are, if you wish, different kinds of data; but I know them all, and I am in a sense a unified being. I do not know what any of these data signify with completeness and clarity; but both as a living being and as a systematic thinker, I include these data as basic; I live and think *by* them.

These common-sense beliefs are, of course, only the beginning of reflective thought. When I am instructed by the physical sciences, I leave the moorings of common sense and plunge into a world of inconceivably rapid and complicated motion which presently eviscerates one of the main concepts of common sense—*viz.*, material substance—and leads me through an unearthly dance of energy transformations that makes the atavisms of Shiva seem childishly simple. And yet, this utterly fantastic world of electronic physics leads to the undeniable facts of radar and the holocaust of Hiroshima, which are events in the common-sense world. The point of this reflection is that while common sense is incompetent to deal with the complexities that science systematizes, and while many or even most of the inferences common sense makes about the physical world are grotesque errors, there still is genuine common-sense knowledge, which is supplemented, but not superseded, by scientific theory.

The same generalization may be made about experience in the realm of behavior claimed by the science of psychology and the art and technic of psychotherapy and the control of the people. Here the scientific concepts are wholly operational, with only traces of common-sense substantive notions of mind and consciousness carried over, apparently through language habits. However faithful I am to these operational concepts as science, my actual experience is not of quantitatively measurable reactions nor of any mechanism of integration. I experience *myself*. I know that it is *I* who am sad or baffled or serenely engrossed in my work. There is an *I* here, a self, a personality, which is quite another thing from the processes which the psychologists describe.

I do not know myself as a process, though I am aware of both

continuity and change in myself. I am a being. While I live and adapt and grow, I am most basically aware simply of existence. I am the same person—though how different!—who was a boy in a village in Ohio. All that I have met has become a part of me, and yet, through it all, the essential self that is I persists as a distinct entity.

This I which I am is the most important thing which I know—not because I am objectively more important than other people, and certainly not because I outweigh the universe. I am important to myself because only through myself do I have any commerce at all with the world. I am my own Archimedian fulcrum for experience and for action; I am both seer and the window by which I see. I did not create the universe; it created me; but it created me, not merely as another particular thing in the world, but as a person, a being capable of knowing, judging, and interacting with the objects of the world and with other persons. The experience of being a person is thus experience of a sort different from the experience which I have of objects, or indeed, of other persons. However true it may be that my experience is conditioned by the impact of objects upon me, and however important it may be that the modes of my experience have been hammered out in social intercourse with other persons, it still remains true that the one primary fact that colors all my experience is my experience of myself.

Thus my common-sense assumption of my own reality is refined into an article of philosophical faith. The nature of this real being is likewise assumed by naïve common sense in its practical, moral, aesthetic, and religious adjustments. We do not initially figure things out and then act upon reflectively attained conclusions. We act and experience our acting, and then, in more or less fragmentary ways, we become systematically and critically aware of the nature of our acting, and so the nature of ourselves.

Naïve common sense observes differences in moral judgments, aesthetic tastes, and religious convictions, and assumes that these differences are associated with personal and cultural variables. Philosophy not only raises the question of the relativity of these value judgments to a central place among theoretical questions, but tends to be more deeply appreciative of the various judgments

themselves than is untutored common sense. A paradoxical outcome results: on the one hand, the disputing claims are appreciated more deeply, and on the other, the tension between the disputing claims is realized more clearly and felt more sharply. A mind infected by philosophy is thus more widely and deeply committed and more aware of the price of commitment—*viz.*, that every acceptance involves an indefinite number of rejections.

Perhaps this double sense of the importance of judgments and the partiality of all profound judgments is most clearly apparent in the area of religion. I am sure that my appreciation of the life of Christ, for example, has been enriched and deepened by formal study of metaphysical and ethical concepts. One cannot live with the ideas of Plato, St. Thomas Aquinas, Kant, and Whitehead, and not be made more profoundly aware of the nature of the spirit. At the same time, one cannot be continually concerned with the general problems of knowledge and of ontology without calling into question the philosophically naïve accounts of religious reality contained in the Scriptures and in the formulations of the churches. Even bowing acquaintance with the principles of symbolism, of semantics, of the translation of the ultimates of experience into verbal patterns, makes one aware of the inescapable necessity of using utterly inadequate formulae.

Faced by the horns of this dilemma, some religious persons disavow reason entirely, some rationalists disavow religion, or at least traditional religion. No one can analyze at all completely the reasons why the chemistry of his own personality extracts the compound it does from the cultural amalgam which supports it. All I can say of my own is that I can give up neither the traditional religious expressions nor the critical awareness of epistemological, logical, and semantic problems—nor, for that matter, the metaphysical difficulties either. Of one thing I am sure, a man must be completely candid with himself about his ultimate beliefs. He must not pretend to have more faith than he has, but by the same token, he must acknowledge the faith he has.

This all adds up to the realization that philosophy has enriched my understanding and deepened my appreciation of my relation to the creative and redeeming background of life. Philosophy is not in itself religion, nor is it a substitute for religion except in the sense

that any human enterprise may crowd out another. To be philosophically religious is to be religious with a special tension.

III

As one grows older, it is difficult to distinguish between what one has learned from one's formal discipline and what one has learned simply from the varied experiences of life. I have practiced philosophy through two tumultuous decades. I have lived through a major depression and two world wars. The tempo of social change since 1907 (when I was six years old) would not be credible if we had not lived through it. I have not merely existed through these events; I have had direct personal interest in them. At the same time, I have been somewhat detached as student and teacher. In a sense academic life is isolated from the immediate pressure of events, but it is not as isolated as might be supposed. Two municipal universities, Yale, and two state universities, with a brief interlude at an American college in the Near East and a preparatory school in New Hampshire (that *was* isolated), have had their advantages as places to sample modern life.

A great deal—though by no means all—of my academic interests as student and teacher have shed light directly on what was happening. Isn't it Whitehead who has said that the question is, Who is doing what? I am sure that Descartes and William James help me identify the Who, and Whitehead more than anyone else gives me concepts to deal with Doing What. Whitehead's notion of process, of concretion, of eternal objects, his final concept of importance—these all illuminate the daily scene and give perspective and coherence—that is, such coherence as I can grasp—to the surge of great events and the small, but more sharply felt, experiences of personal living.

It may be, however, that some of the unity that I think I have derived from years of philosophy is really the natural accompaniment of maturity and the special circumstances of life. Every one has his obvious public vicissitudes and his secret battles with their inner triumphs and defeats—genuinely secret, known only partly to the wife of his bosom, as the ordeal and benediction of life to her is known only partly to him. I notice that my feeling about my

brothers is less critical as they and I approach the half-century mark. Life teaches us, if we will learn. Another nonphilosophical factor is the subtle alteration that advancing years works in our biological processes, slowing up our reactions and tending to merge our discordant impulses into greater harmony. He is indeed a fool who does not ripen with age.

Granted that all these factors have played their part, it yet seems to me that if I had not studied and remained preoccupied with philosophy, my life would have been much different, not merely in its vocational aspect, but in its intellectual and personal quality. Philosophy has helped clarify the issues of life. It has given me perspective. It has taught me the double lesson of responsibility and detachment. It has made me wary: I am much less apt to take things for granted, for I have a greater appreciation of the tentativeness of all judgments. At the same time, it has encouraged my ventures of faith, for it has made me realize that perpetual suspension of judgment is even more sterile than unexamined commitment.

Philosophy, said Plato, is vision. It is both vision and discipline. Philosophy makes all life seem more rich and wonderful, because it goes past prosaic appearances to the infinitely various possibilities of being. Philosophy begins, said Aristotle, in wonder. It continues with ever-renewed delight in the inexhaustible subtlety of the patterns of experience. Philosophy is vision of order. It releases from triviality and parochial enthrallment with the particular here and now, not by annihilating the particular moment but by including it in the infinite drama of eternity. Philosophy, said Whitehead, is a perpetual assault upon the boundaries of finitude. To be a philosopher is to know one's own insignificance, and yet to know the absolute importance of being the kind of finite being one is.

STATE AND REGIONAL MEETINGS

By JOHN A. KINNEMAN

Illinois State Normal University

It is essential to the welfare of any organization that its nature, purposes, and work be understood by its members. The officers and Council of the American Association of University Professors have always been aware of this salient fact and have consistently sought to keep the growing membership informed of the nature, purposes, and work of the Association to the end that the Association might have the support of every member in seeking the fulfillment of its general purpose enunciated by its founders "to maintain and advance the ideals and standards of the profession." This has been done and is being done through articles and reports published in the Association's *Bulletin*, through Chapter letters from the Association's Central Office, through the professional contacts of the officers and members of the Council and of Committees of the Association, through occasional visitation of Chapters by Association officers and members of the Council and of Committees, and through the Association's Annual Meeting.

The Annual Meeting of the Association has usually been held in an important center of population. Before the Second World War it was held during the Christmas holiday season in connection with the annual sessions of one or more of the specialized subject matter organizations. Since the War it has been held independently of the place and time of meetings of other organizations and in a different region of the country each year. Prior to that, in so far as it was possible, the Annual Meeting was held in different parts of the country, but since the place of the meeting was determined by the subject matter organization, or organizations, with which the Association met, there was never any assurance that the Annual Meeting would be held in a different region each year. Thus, it was frequently held in Chicago because so many of the subject matter organizations held their annual meetings there.

Since the War the Annual Meeting has been held in Boston, St. Louis, and Washington; this wide geographical distribution has provided a better opportunity for more members of the Association to attend and participate in an Annual Meeting than was the case heretofore.

An understanding of and insight into the nature, purposes, and work of the Association are greatly facilitated by participation in the Association's Annual Meeting. It is unfortunate, therefore, that only a small percentage of the membership of the Association can participate in the Annual Meeting. It is in part to overcome this handicap that the addresses and reports given at the Annual Meeting and the actions taken by the meeting are published in the Association's *Bulletin*. Their publication is essential to the welfare of the Association, but reading addresses and reports is not the equivalent of hearing them presented and of participating in the discussion following their presentation. For this reason it is desirable that the Annual Meeting and the other means referred to above of disseminating information about the Association be supplemented by well planned chapter, state, and regional meetings. In 1928 the Council of the Association took cognizance of this need and created a standing committee—Committee E on Organization and Conduct of Chapters. The members of this Committee in addition to other duties have the responsibility of encouraging cooperation among the chapters in arranging state and regional meetings.

II

The holding of a state or regional meeting is not dependent upon formally organized state or regional Associations. There are, in fact, some good reasons why it is not wise to attempt to effect formal organizations of the Association at the state or regional level. A single Chapter, with reasonable support from a neighboring Chapter or Chapters, can provide all of the leadership necessary for a state or a regional meeting. A good illustration of this is at hand in the case of the Chapters of the Association in Indiana. During the fall of 1946 the call of the Chapter at Butler University for a meeting of chapter officers to plan a state-wide session met with wide and enthusiastic response. The succeeding spring the

Butler chapter was host to representatives from chapters in the State. In 1948 the Chapter at DePauw University was host to the Indiana chapters and more than a hundred members, from a dozen chapters, registered for the sessions. The 1949 meeting was held at Indiana University and the meeting of 1950 will be conducted on the campus of the Indiana State Teachers College at Terre Haute.

The chapters in Indiana demonstrate a high order of cooperativeness and a conspicuous homogeneity. The chapters in Illinois, by providing excellent state meetings, have also shown a consistent usefulness to their members. During the late thirties state meetings in Illinois were held during successive years at the University of Chicago, University of Illinois, Illinois State Normal University, and Northern Illinois State Teachers College. Since the War the chapters of Bradley University, Northwestern University, and De Paul University have been hosts to the sessions and have been responsible for planning the programs. At the Illinois meetings it is not unusual to find members present from more than twenty chapters. The next session for Illinois chapters will be held on April 1, 1950, at James Millikin University in Decatur.

In Wisconsin the members of the Beloit College Chapter served as hosts for a state meeting during the fall of 1947, while the members at the Eau Claire State Teachers College assumed responsibility for a dinner meeting for members from chapters in the northern part of the State.

In addition to the state meetings for the members of all chapters, the Association's members in the state colleges in Illinois have held a succession of three meetings at Normal, Macomb, and Carbondale. The earlier meetings were attended only by representatives from some or all of the five state colleges. At the last meeting, however, members were present also from the Chapter of the University of Illinois. At these meetings, the common problems of the state-supported institutions were considered. The Chapter at Charleston gives the assurance that it will be host to the fourth session to be held some time in 1950.

Chapter officers should recognize the possibility for other types of meetings in the name of the Association. During the fall of

1948 the Chapter at Illinois State Normal University prevailed upon the General Secretary to pay a visit at the conclusion of the sessions of the Council held in Chicago. With adequate planning, a dinner meeting was arranged and more than a hundred members, from eight chapters in central Illinois, attended. Needless to say, the General Secretary's address brought new and added insight to many members on the work and purposes of the Association.

III

What are the purposes of these sessions and of the programs presented? Obviously, the discussion of any question of interest to the profession is worth while and should be encouraged. Consequently, it is not surprising, especially in a period of inflation, that matters of the economic well-being of the profession were considered. Such programs are consistent with the work being done by a special committee of the Association.¹ In these discussions, attention was given to comparative salary schedules at state, regional, and national levels in private and public institutions, as well as ways and means of achieving betterment of the economic status of the profession. Comparable consideration was given to the current attainments and to the present deficiencies of the retirement programs in the publicly and the privately supported institutions.

If opportunity is provided, state and regional meetings of the Association can be used to good advantage in sharing experiences on the work done and the activities carried on by chapters. Clearly, there is no simple formula by which a chapter progresses and its efforts achieve distinction. However, officers and members of chapters not only show an interest in the successes and achievements of other chapters but many times look for programs of study and action which will encourage attendance at chapter meetings, increase membership, and, in all ways, stimulate professional attainments. The oft-repeated question is, "What do you do in your chapter meetings?" State and regional meetings, therefore, can provide to advantage some time on their programs

¹ Winter, 1948 *Bulletin*, American Association of University Professors, Vol. 34, No. 4, pp. 778-797.

for sharing experiences regarding the achievements of chapters. Doubtless the functioning of chapters has been greatly improved as the result of the stimulative suggestions received at state meetings.

In keeping with the general principles derived from the work of the Association's Committee on Place and Function of Faculties in College and University Government, the state meetings to which reference has been made have not overlooked this important aspect of our professional development. The Illinois meeting at Northwestern University in 1948, for example, provided those present with a stimulating analysis of the rôle of the faculty in the basic government and administration of Roosevelt College. The same year the representatives from the Indiana chapters, in session at DePauw University, heard from chapter representatives similar significant developments in three institutions of diverse background and sources of financial support. The rôle of the faculty in college government has been one of the dominant themes in the several conferences conducted by the Association's members from the state-supported colleges in Illinois, to the end that a state-wide committee for extending the rôle of the faculty has been created and has been at work on some of the problems which have been recognized.

Salary schedules, academic retirement and related subjects, faculty participation in college and university government, are not the only subjects that have been of concern to these state meetings. The recruitment and retention of college teachers has been given the attention its importance warrants and as state and regional meetings continue will be given increasing attention. A subject of cognate importance to higher education is the recruitment and the retention of qualified college students, a subject which should be considered from as many critical and scientific viewpoints as possible and should be re-examined periodically.

Those who participated in the meetings referred to in this paper are aware of the values to be derived from the consideration of other subjects that may be regarded, but mistakenly so, as of less immediate concern to the profession. I refer to subjects relating to the welfare of higher education as a whole. Thus, those who attended the sessions at Normal during the spring of 1947 will re-

call the thoughtful paper read by Professor Howard De F. Widger on "What Should Be the Qualifications for the President of Utopia Teachers College?"¹ Members who were present at the Bradley University meeting will retain definite impressions of the paper presented by Professor William Jaffé of Northwestern University on "Academic Democracy in England" and those at the De Paul University meeting, the provocative and helpful presentation, from the viewpoint of a librarian, made by Miss Eleanor W. Welch of the Illinois State Normal University on "Training Aids in Higher Education." Professor H. H. Remmers journeyed from Purdue University to the Illinois meeting at De Paul University to discuss in his inimitable way the "Appraisal of Faculty Competence." Those who planned the Indiana sessions at DePauw University took adequate cognizance of this phase of our responsibility by presenting a panel on the "Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education."

IV

State or regional meetings are not without their opportunities for action. There are, of course, limits to the number of recommendations or resolutions which it is wise for any meeting to adopt. The value of a resolution depends not alone on its substance but upon its appropriateness and its tone. It is helpful if a subject under consideration for a resolution is first referred to a competent committee for special study. This should be done early in the meeting, or better still, before the meeting convenes. For whom does a resolution speak? It is important for members of the Association to remember that resolutions speak only for the meeting adopting them. In the case of state and regional meetings of the Association, resolutions should not be construed as speaking for the several chapters whose members are in attendance. It is desirable that a resolution adopted by a state or regional meeting of the Association be in harmony with recommendations or resolutions on the same subject that may have been adopted by the Annual Meeting, the Council, or a committee of the Association, but this is not a requirement. It is important,

¹ Autumn, 1947 *Bulletin*, American Association of University Professors, Vol. 33, No. 3, pp. 525-534.

however, that such a recommendation or resolution be in accordance with basic principles for the profession as these have been developed and acted upon by the Association through its Annual Meeting, its Council, and its Committees. In this connection special reference should be made to the 1915 Declaration of Principles on Academic Freedom and Academic Tenure, the 1925 Conference Statement, and the 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure.

The appropriateness of action by a state or regional meeting of the Association is well illustrated in a resolution adopted by the Indiana State Meeting held at DePauw University on April 9, 1948. The motivation for this resolution was the dismissal of Professor George Parker from the faculty of Evansville College during the preceding week. Understandably, many members in attendance were concerned about the facts of Professor Parker's dismissal as reported in the press. Belief persisted that some action should be taken by the meeting in reference to this situation. A resolution was drafted by Professors Ralph F. Fuchs (Law), Indiana University; Fred E. Brengle (History), Indiana State Teachers College; and James H. Peeling (Sociology), Butler University. The resolution read as follows:

A period when political controversy and feeling run high is a time when it is particularly necessary to adhere firmly to the principles of civil liberty and of academic freedom and tenure for which the American Association of University Professors stands. This meeting therefore reaffirms its adherence to these principles and warns against the danger to the American way of life which inheres in their violation, no matter what the views of those against whom such violations may be directed. It is the duty of the administrations and faculties of institutions of higher learning to guard the freedom of college and university personnel to exercise the privileges of citizenship. Observance of this duty is especially vital when an individual's activities arouse strong opposition in the community. We restate the evident truth that rights are not forfeited by their exercise.

This resolution at the time seemed to be consistent with the principles of freedom of the Association. In this connection reference is made to the Report of the investigation of Professor Parker's

dismissal by the Association's Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure.¹

V

Local committees in charge of arrangements for these meetings have invited the attendance of administrative officers. On several occasions greetings were extended by college presidents and deans. They expressed their interest in the work of the Association and some referred to their participation in the Association as Active Members in former years.

Although it would be highly desirable to have the General Secretary or the Associate Secretary of the Association present at all state and regional meetings, their professional work makes that impossible, and these meetings can be conducted effectively and advantageously without trespassing on their time. The same can be said in reference to the other national officers of the Association, who are busy professors with classes to teach, committee meetings to attend, and students to advise. In this connection it should be noted that the General Secretary of the Association participated in two of the meetings to which reference is made in this paper. Successful meetings of this kind can be achieved through the cooperative efforts of Chapter Officers and the Regional Adviser on Committee E by utilizing local speakers. In planning such meetings, the cooperation of members of the Association's Council and former members of the Council residing in the area of the meeting should be sought and their services utilized. In some instances a national officer or a former national officer may be close at hand and able to participate in the meeting.

In conjunction with these meetings, there are minor problems of finance. The publication of programs—whether mimeographed or printed—and the cost of mailing them to chapters of the Association entail some expense. These and other necessary expenditures have been assumed in some instances by host chapters out of the assessments which members authorize. In other cases the costs incident to the operation of these meetings have been covered by the collection of a registration fee from persons in attendance.

¹ Spring, 1949 *Bulletin*, American Association of University Professors, Vol. 35, No. 1, pp. 74-111.

In many cases transportation of members attending state meetings has been provided through group riding and payment of a nominal mileage rate from chapter treasuries has been made to the persons who furnish the automobiles.

The programs of these meetings have resulted in a general professional stimulation of the members present. In addition, these meetings are good for the morale of the host chapters, because the members invariably develop a sense of achievement when they plan a meeting which has attracted a good attendance and brought forth good response. Thus, a president of a large chapter has affirmed that "every chapter officer should attend each year at least one off-campus meeting of the Association." Finally, without any measure of sentimentality, a certain sense of refreshment and encouragement is derived from renewing and extending professional associations.

The meetings of the Association in the region which consists of Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin have been, to make a modest claim, of more than ordinary success. Even though similar meetings have been held in other parts of the country, there are many places in different states and regions where they have not been held and should be encouraged. Such meetings, well planned, will contribute greatly to the general understanding of the usefulness of the Association and will develop an *esprit de corps* essential to the welfare of the profession and of higher education as a whole.

[Professor Kinneman has been a member of Committee E on Organization and Conduct of Chapters for Region 7 (Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin) since 1943.—THE EDITORS.]

THE ANNUAL MEETING

Cleveland, Ohio—March 25-26, 1950

The Thirty-sixth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors will be held in Cleveland, Ohio, at the Hotel Cleveland, Saturday and Sunday, March 25-26, 1950. The program will consist of addresses, reports, symposia, and forum discussion on subjects of concern to members of the profession and to all others who are interested in higher education. The Annual Dinner of the Association will be held on the evening of March 25. The dinner will be informal; the charge will not exceed \$3.50.

The schedule for the meeting will be as follows:

Saturday, March 25

9:00-10:00 A. M., Registration of members and guests

10:00 A. M., First Session

2:00 P. M., Second Session, adjournment at 5:00 P. M.

7:00 P. M., Annual Dinner

Sunday, March 26

9:30 A. M., Third Session

2:00 P. M., Fourth Session, adjournment at 6:00 P. M., or
upon the completion of the business before the
meeting

The sessions of the meeting on Saturday, March 25, including the Annual Dinner, are open to nonmembers. The sessions on Sunday, March 26, which will be concerned exclusively with Association affairs, are open only to members of the Association.

Among the subjects scheduled for the program on Saturday, March 25, are the following: The Proposal to Establish National Scholarships and Fellowships and to Provide for Loans for Students in Institutions of Higher Education; Loyalty Tests in Government and Education; The Challenge of Longevity (Address—Annual Dinner); and The History of Freedom (Address of the Association's Retiring President—Annual Dinner).

The subjects scheduled for Sunday, March 26, are: The State of the Association—Report of the General Secretary; Academic Freedom and Tenure—Annual Report of the Association's Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure; The Association and the Qualifications and Preparation of College Teachers; and The Rôle and Functions of Chapters in the Work of the Association—An Open Forum Discussion.

Proposed Constitutional Amendment

An amendment to Article VII of the Constitution of the Association will be submitted to the Annual Meeting for ratification. The text of the Association's Constitution appears in the Spring, 1949 issue of the Association's *Bulletin*, pp. 112-121.

The proposed amendment to Article VII substitutes for Section 1, Section 2, and Section 3 of this Article the following single section, to become Section 1, Sections 4 and 5 to be renumbered as Sections 2 and 3. The proposed Section 1 of Article VII reads as follows:

1. The Council of the Association shall have the power to determine the annual dues of the Association for each of the four classes of membership: Active, Junior, Associate, and Emeritus; and shall have power to enact regulations governing the payment of annual dues.

Article VII at present reads as follows:

Article VII—Dues, Termination of Membership

1. Each Active Member shall pay four dollars and each Associate or Junior Member shall pay three dollars to the Treasurer as annual dues.

2. Emeritus Members shall pay no dues.

3. Nonpayment of dues by an Active, Associate, or Junior Member for two years shall terminate membership, but in such a case a member may be reinstated by the Council on payment of arrears.¹

4. For proper cause a member may be suspended, or his membership may be terminated, by a two-thirds vote of the Council at

¹ It has been voted by the Council that the *Bulletin* be discontinued at the end of one year and that, in case of subsequent reinstatement, payment be required for that year only.

any regular or special meeting; but such member shall be notified of the proposed action, with the reasons therefor, at least four weeks in advance of the meeting and shall be given a hearing if he so requests.

5. A member desiring to terminate his membership may do so by a resignation communicated to the General Secretary.

Article VII amended, as proposed, would read as follows:

1. The Council of the Association shall have the power to determine the annual dues of the Association for each of the four classes of membership: Active, Junior, Associate, and Emeritus; and shall have power to enact regulations governing the payment of annual dues.

2. For proper cause a member may be suspended, or his membership may be terminated, by a two-thirds vote of the Council at any regular or special meeting; but such member shall be notified of the proposed action, with the reasons therefor, at least four weeks in advance of the meeting and shall be given a hearing if he so requests.

3. A member desiring to terminate his membership may do so by a resignation communicated to the General Secretary.

It should be noted and emphasized that the Annual Meeting of the Association is a membership meeting in the sense that it is not restricted to Chapter officers or delegates designated by Chapters. It is the hope of the Officers and Council of the Association that every Chapter of the Association will encourage attendance at the meeting and that the Chapters and membership in the Cleveland area, in Ohio, and in near-by states will be well represented by those in attendance.

The Annual Meeting will be preceded by a session of the Association's Council on Friday, March 24, and followed by sessions of the Council on Monday, March 27.

RALPH E. HIMSTEAD, *General Secretary*

INSTRUCTIONAL SALARIES IN 41 SELECTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES FOR THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1949-50

A Study by the Committee on the Economic Status of the Profession

The present study of instructional salaries is a continuation of that made for the academic year 1948-49, and published in the Winter, 1948 issue of the Association's *Bulletin*.¹ In that report the reasons for making such a study were stated in full, and here they will only be summarized. The purpose of the study was to ascertain data concerning salaries actually being paid to college and university teachers, and to make these data available to the members and the Chapters of the Association and to administrative officers of colleges and universities while these data were still current. In December, 1948, prior to publication in the Association's *Bulletin*, mimeographed copies of the study were distributed to the Chapters of the Association and to the administrative officers of the cooperating institutions, with a view to the relevance of the data presented therein to the preparation of institutional budgets for the ensuing year. The purpose of the present study is again to make available data concerning salaries paid during the current academic year as early in the year as possible.

It should be noted that this study, like the study of last year, is not based on random sampling, and must not be interpreted as representative of the over-all salary situation in American colleges and universities as a whole. The institutions invited to submit data were chosen from among those which the Committee had reason to believe followed good salary practices, although it was anticipated that the list might have to be altered in subsequent studies. This anticipation turned out to be correct, and there are

¹ "Instructional Salaries in 42 Selected Colleges and Universities for the Academic Year 1948-49," *Bulletin*, Vol. 34, No. 4, pp. 778-797.

a few changes in the list used in the present study—specifically, three institutions are omitted, and two added. These changes in the institutions covered have been taken into account in making the direct comparisons shown in the tables that follow.

On August 1, 1949, the Committee's questionnaire for the present study was sent to the appropriate administrative officers of 41 colleges and universities by the General Secretary of the Association with a transmittal letter explanatory of the nature and purposes of the study. This letter, supplemented in a few cases by follow-up communications from the General Secretary, eventuated in a 100 per cent response to the Committee's questionnaire.

In this questionnaire the same three schedules described in the study for the academic year 1948-49 were used. These schedules were as follows:

- I. Formal salary for each rank of full-time faculty members.
- II. Numbers of students enrolled in October, 1948, and expected in October, 1949, and total amounts spent in 1948-49 and expected to be spent in 1949-50 on instructional salaries, including the salaries of part-time instructors and assistants, and on pension and insurance fund payments, but excluding, as in all schedules, Medical and Dental and summer school salaries.
- III. Distribution of full-time salaries actually paid for each rank, with columns to distinguish between those appointed on a 9 or 10-month academic year basis and those appointed for an 11 or 12-month year.

For this study there was added, however, an alternative form of Schedule III to enable institutions which had computed means and medians to submit the results of their own computations.

The Committee wishes to express its appreciation for the cooperation of the administrations of the institutions represented in this study, an appreciation which it is confident is shared by the membership of the Association and of the profession as a whole. It is not often that a 100 per cent response to a questionnaire is obtained. In the study of last year the administrations of three institutions invited to participate did not respond. One of them replied that it could not readily obtain the data from its books, and for that reason this administration was not again invited to contribute. The other two were kept on the list and have supplied all

the data requested this year. The 41 institutions participating in the present study represent a total enrollment of 251,313 students and a total of 13,551 full-time faculty.¹

II

As was the case in the study for the academic year 1948-49, the tables and charts present the substance of this study. Two changes in procedure have contributed materially toward improvement in the accuracy of the data as a record of instructional salaries for the current academic year. First, the time for the returns on the questionnaire was immediately before the beginning of the fall term rather than during the summer, as was the case in the study of a year ago. This change enabled institutions to supply more accurate information. Since the deadline for publication was the same as for a year ago, this change of date put the Committee under considerable pressure in analyzing the schedules and preparing the report, but it has improved the data. The other change, already referred to, was the use of the alternate form of Schedule III, which not only has made available precise minima and maxima, but also, since the means and medians were calculated by administrative officers from direct payroll readings, has undoubtedly provided averages free from the bias which sometimes appears in measures when computed from frequency distribution tables. Of the 41 institutions covered in this study, 26 either used this alternate schedule or supplied figures on means to supplement the frequency tables.

The tables are presented in essentially the same form that was used last year. They summarize the facts in as much detail as is

¹ The cooperating institutions are: Amherst College, Bowdoin College, Brown University, Bryn Mawr College, California Institute of Technology, University of California, Carleton College, Case Institute of Technology, Columbia University, Cornell University (Endowed Colleges), Dartmouth College, Duke University, Emory University, Harvard University (Arts and Sciences), Haverford College, University of Illinois, Johns Hopkins University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, University of Michigan, Mills College, University of Minnesota, Northwestern University, Oberlin College, University of Pennsylvania, Pomona College, Princeton University, Reed College, Rice Institute, University of Rochester, Stanford University, Swarthmore College, Vanderbilt University, Vassar College, Wabash College, Washington University, University of Washington, Wellesley College, Wesleyan University, Williams College, University of Wisconsin, Yale University (Arts and Sciences).

compatible with the Committee's pledge not to identify institutions directly with their data. A few changes have been made, however. The lines have been omitted which appeared in three of the tables last year showing the range of formal salary minima when these differed appreciably from the lowest salaries actually paid. The reason for this change is the small number of such divergencies in this year's reports—apparently an indication that, for the most part, the lower salaries have been brought up to the formal schedules. Indeed, in the case of instructors the lowest salaries paid are still, as they were last year, above the formal schedules in many institutions. Other changes in the tables are in the nature of extensions or amplifications of data. We have inserted a line under Mean of Means showing the figures for last year when comparable data were available.¹ These figures probably understate the salary increases given to faculty members holding the same rank last year. A good many new appointments and promotions from rank to rank have been made, and a promotion in rank removes a high salary in one rank and adds a low salary in the other.

The number of the tables has been increased by reclassification of the institutions in the combined North Central and Pacific groups according to size. This was done last year for the combined New England and Middle Atlantic groups as an example of differences which may prevail within a single geographical area, and hence as a safeguard against any assumption that the regional tables represent homogeneous groupings. The Committee felt that what was done last year as an example should be extended this year as far as possible. The Women's Colleges are also given a separate table, as are the Institutes of Technology again this year. In the last case, the salary data cover appointments on the 11 to 12-month basis only. Other data, such as proportions of each rank to total full-time faculty, cover the whole full-time staffs. Finally, a new feature of this year's report is the use of charts. These have been prepared to illustrate visually the me-

¹Those who wish to compare other salary figures for the two academic years 1948-49 and 1949-50 may do so in the following tables, which cover the same institutions in both studies: Privately Controlled: New England, Middle Atlantic, North Central, and Pacific; and Five Large Institutions in New England and Middle Atlantic.

dians for each group of institutions, and the curves of salary distribution in the state universities.

The tables and charts should give a fairly complete picture of the salary conditions prevailing in these 41 institutions. In most cases the figures indicate, as they did last year, a commendably broad range of salary for each rank. Moreover, the average salary paid in each rank has moved a little farther from the minimum, and in many instances is now near the center of the scale, indicating a better distribution of salaries between minimum and maximum. In a few of these 41 institutions, however, and possibly more widely in other institutions through the country, both the minimum and the average of full professors' salaries need improvement in relation to the salaries now being paid in the lower ranks and, of course, to the cost of living. The old working rule was that, for the maintenance of incentive and efficiency, the scale of professors' salaries should be at least twice that of instructors. The necessity of recruiting large numbers of new teachers in severe competition with the other professions and with business has forced up the level of instructors' pay substantially, but the pressure seems not to have operated with equal force on salaries in the upper ranks, and a few institutions fall short of maintaining, and a few others barely maintain, a desirable relationship between the salaries of instructors and the salaries of professors.

A comparison of minimum salaries paid in 1946-47 in certain of our institutions for which data are available¹ with those paid today in the same institutions seems to confirm the impression that salary increases in the upper ranks have not kept pace with those in the lower. What is most striking is that the trend towards favoring the lower ranks is more marked at present than it was a year ago. The figures are as follows:

Average Rate of Increase in Minimum Salaries over 1946-47

	1948-49	1949-50
Professors (31 institutions).....	9.6%	10.5%
Associate Professors (30 institutions).....	8.9%	11.8%
Assistant Professors (31 institutions).....	13.6%	18.1%
Instructors (28 institutions).....	17.9%	25.3%

¹From tables prepared by Professor W. E. Martin for the DePauw University Chapter of the American Association of University Professors, and from data supplied through the courtesy of Mr. Henry G. Badger of the United States Office of Education.

Minimum salaries for instructors have improved more than twice as rapidly as those for professors and associate professors. However, this statement should be interpreted with some caution, since the minimum salaries are also the theoretical beginning salaries in the various ranks, and do not necessarily reflect the situation as regards salaries actually received by college staffs. A sounder basis of judgment would be average salaries, for these would better indicate the use made of salary ranges. Unfortunately, the Committee has such data¹ on only a little over a third of the institutions included in this study, although these are of every region and type. These data, too limited as to time period and number of institutions to be conclusive, are as follows:

Average Salaries in Certain Institutions Compared with 1946-47

	1946-47	1948-49		1949-50	
	Mean	Mean	Increase	Mean	Increase
Professors (16 institutions)	\$6001	\$6805	13.4%	\$7165	19.4%
Associate Professors (15 institutions)	4636	5204	12.3%	5403	16.5%
Assistant Professors (15 institutions)	3641	4120	13.2%	4249	16.7%
Instructors (14 institutions)	2849	3287	15.1%	3453	21.2%

With a further shortening of time to two years, the number of institutions can be increased, by use of the Committee's two studies. A comparison of averages for 1948-49 and 1949-50 (confined to teachers on a 9 to 10-month basis) seems to indicate that, for the group as a whole, salaries of instructors are still moving upward more rapidly than for other ranks:

	1948-49	1949-50	Increase
Professors (38 institutions)	\$6753	\$6899	2.2%
Associate Professors (38 institutions)	5138	5189	1.0%
Assistant Professors (39 institutions)	4099	4177	1.9%
Instructors (38 institutions)	3154	3287	4.2%

Although these comparisons of average salaries seem to moderate the conclusion based on minimum salaries, it is still evident that

¹ From Professor Martin's table, and, in one case, from figures compiled by the institution.

salaries for instructors have advanced more rapidly than for the other ranks, and this process was probably going on before 1946 as well as since. There may, of course, be some offsets to this state of affairs. It is possible, for example, that there is now more rapid promotion from rank to rank for the younger men and that salary averages are held down by increased proportions of staff at the beginning salaries in each rank. If this is true, the lot of the older men may have improved slightly more than the averages show. However this may be, it is clear that, for all ranks in the period in question, average salaries in the institutions under consideration have not kept pace with the cost of living.¹

The proportion which each of the four ranks bears to the total full-time faculty also has some bearing on the salary situation. Obviously a high percentage of the faculty in the upper ranks, with a good salary scale and with discernment in selection and advancement of staff, tends to indicate a strong salary situation while, conversely, a low proportion of the faculty in the upper ranks, even with high salaries for the few, seems to indicate weakness. There is a remarkable degree of variation even in this comparatively small and selected group of institutions. The data are given in each table, but over-all figures may be of interest. Of the 40 institutions using all four ranks, the proportions of professors to the total full-time staff range from a low of 17.7 per cent to a high of 52.9; and of instructors from a low of 6.7 to a high of 45.5. These are extreme cases. Most of the institutions hold positions much nearer the averages for the whole group, which are as follows:

Professors.....	31.1%	Assistant Professors.....	25.3%
Associate Professors.....	21.1%	Instructors.....	22.5%

There can be no dogmatic definition of the precise proportions the various ranks should bear to one another. The special requirements of particular kinds of schools must be taken into account. Nevertheless, institutions staffed largely with professors and

¹ In June, 1946, the Consumers' Price Index stood at 133.3 (1935-39 = 100). In June, 1948, it stood at 171.7, a rise of 28.8%, and in June, 1949, at 169.6, or 27.2% above the June, 1946 figure. Index numbers are from *Monthly Labor Review*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor.

lightly with instructors are certainly not, assuming competence commensurate with rank, engaging in bad educational practice and, other conditions being good, they should be very attractive to students. One cannot be so sure that, reversing the relationships, the opposite is not true, although there may, of course, be ameliorating circumstances. Possibly one may say that it is desirable that at least half the staff be in the two upper ranks if there is to be opportunity for reasonable recognition and promotion,¹ on the one hand, and if students are to be well instructed, on the other. But the Committee would certainly not advocate a limitation on the maximum in the upper ranks.

Another important factor to be taken into account in judging a salary situation is the proportion of students to instructional staff. A high ratio tends to mean a heavy burden on the faculty, except as lightened by the aid of assistants; and this relief is limited by the fact that assistants are usually inexperienced, and require considerable supervision. An unduly heavy student-load means that students receive less attention than they should, or faculty reading and research are neglected, or, if the situation is very bad, both. Education, as well as the instructor, suffers and the general quality of the institution is bound to deteriorate.

In this matter of student-faculty ratio these institutions as a group have shown some improvement during the past year. Enrollments have receded a little from their postwar peak, and it has been possible at the same time to augment teaching staffs a little. The number of full-time students in these institutions has decreased by exactly 5.0 per cent, and the number of full-time faculty members has risen by 1.9 per cent. In 1948-49 the over-all proportion of full-time faculty members to students in the 41 institutions covered in this report was one to 19.9; in 1949-50 the figure is one to 18.5. This improvement is noticeable in small colleges as well as in large universities. The main factor influencing the level of the student-faculty ratio seems to be size. The following table shows this clearly:

¹With approximately half of the faculty in the two upper ranks, a teacher should, under normal circumstances, be able to anticipate appointment as an associate professor after ten or twelve years as an instructor and assistant professor. Advancement at this rate is made feasible by elimination of the unfit during the probationary period in the profession; retirement for age; and deaths, resignations, and separations for other reasons occurring annually in all ranks.

	Number of Institutions	Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member				
		Up to 10	10-15	15-20	20-25	25-30
Small	14	3	11
Medium size	11	..	7	4
Large	16	..	3	6	4	3

Although it is generally true that the large universities make much more use of part-time instructors and graduate assistants, it is also true that they give a good deal more attention to graduate studies, which require a fairly low ratio for satisfactory results. The President's Commission on Higher Education recommended "as a general pattern" "a national average ratio" of 20 students per faculty member for the first two years of college, 13 for the next two years, and 10 at graduate and professional school levels.¹ This would mean an average of 16 to 17 for the four-year college. All of the small colleges included here, and most of the medium-sized colleges, improve on this standard.² For the large universities the matter is less certain, depending on the number of graduate students involved and the amount of part-time instruction and assistance provided.³

Finally, to complete the picture of salary conditions in these selected institutions, the Committee again presents the average amounts per student spent on instruction. These figures include salaries for the full-time and part-time staff of teachers and assistants, and, in addition, contributions made by the institutions to pension and insurance funds. They furnish, therefore, a comprehensive test of instructional adequacy. All in all, as was stated last year, "they supply as accurate a measure of educational stand-

¹ *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Volume IV, *Staffing Higher Education*, Washington, 1947, p. 11.

² Some small colleges, indeed, have carried the virtue of a low ratio too far, at the expense of the salary scale. The remedy can scarcely be applied all at once, but the beginning should be made toward a long-term restoration of balance.

³ It will be noted that the ratios given in this study consider only full-time students and faculty members. Any attempt to collect and use data on part-time faculty members and teaching assistants is precluded by limitations of time, and by the statistical and clerical problems involved in equating such personnel under circumstances which vary from institution to institution. The exclusion of such data should be borne in mind in interpreting the comparative figures for different institutions, particularly in comparing smaller institutions with larger, since the larger institutions tend to enroll more part-time students, and to make greater use of part-time teachers.

ards as is available in terms of numerical symbols or money values. They are, therefore, in a very real sense, *the* critical figures, though they cannot measure such intangible and variable factors as devotion to teaching in spite of material handicaps, on the one hand, or distraction and inefficiency, on the other."

There is a rather wide diversity in the amounts spent on instruction per student in these colleges and universities. The figures for 1948-49 range from \$242 at one end of the scale to \$820 at the other, and for the current academic year, 1949-50, from \$274 to \$977. The following table gives an over-all picture of the situation. Although there are some tendencies to regional clustering and some signs that size and type of control are factors, they are not the only considerations here. There are undoubtedly other determinants, such as the amount of institutional income, the relative efficiency and expense of buildings and grounds, and perhaps, to some degree, traditions and attitudes within each institution.

Instructional Salaries per Student in 40 Institutions

	<u>\$200-299</u>		<u>\$300-399</u>		<u>\$400-499</u>		<u>\$500 and above</u>	
	1948- 49	1949- 50	1948- 49	1949- 50	1948- 49	1949- 50	1948- 49	1949- 50
Privately controlled:								
New England	1	1	1	..	6	5	2	4
Middle Atlantic	2	1	5	3	3	6
North Central	3	3	3	3
South	3	2	1	2
Pacific	2	1	2	2	1	2
State Universities	<u>5</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>..</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>..</u>	<u>..</u>	<u>..</u>	<u>..</u>
TOTALS	9	6	9	9	16	13	6	12
By size:								
Small	4	2	6	6	3	5
Medium	4	3	..	1	6	3	2	5
Large	<u>5</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>
TOTALS	9	6	9	9	16	13	6	12

The average expenditure per student for instructional salaries for the 40 institutions on which data are comparable for both years was, for 1948-49, \$408; and for 1949-50, \$448, an increase of 9.8

per cent. The Committee lacks data on which to base a firm comparison with the prewar expenditures in this category in the majority of these institutions, but, as was indicated last year, there is reason to believe that, since the prewar years, instructional expenditure has not generally advanced as rapidly as other components of college and university budgets, as rapidly as tuition fees, or as rapidly as the rise in the cost of living. It is fairly certain that members of faculties, and no doubt administrators also, have borne the main burden in the supremely important task of carrying higher education through the period of inflation.

III

Several principles of classification have been used in reporting the basic statistics received from the 41 cooperating institutions. First, the data have been organized by geographical regions—New England, Middle Atlantic, North Central, Southern, and Pacific. This grouping accounts for the first 5 of the 13 tables (I through V). Next, the data have been classified by size of institution, that is, small, medium, and large, by combining regions so that the numbers would be sufficient for cross-classifications without revealing identity. The size groupings are shown on the next five tables (VI through X), and charts have been made to facilitate comparisons among the medians by size groups. Finally, one table is devoted to each of the three classes of institutions: women's colleges (XI), institutes of technology (XII), and state universities (XIII). Four charts have also been constructed to show important characteristics of the salary structure in the state universities.

Because of these reclassifications most of the private institutions appear in two different tables. Each of the institutions classified by size also appears in the geographical region groupings. One of the three technical institutes has been included in its regional group but the other two have not been so included. The state universities are not included in the regional group, and neither the women's colleges nor the state universities are included in the size groups. Thus, the classifications in Tables VI through XI are made by regrouping the data summarized in the first five tables.

As in the report of last year, each table is composed of four parts showing (1) ranges and typical values of instructional salaries,

(2) the percentage of faculty in each of the four academic ranks, (3) the average number of students per full-time faculty member, and (4) the average amount spent per student for instructional salaries.

The tables, properly read, contain a great deal of information. In Table I, for example, three characteristics of salaries are analyzed: (1) ranges, (2) arithmetic means, and (3) medians by academic ranks. Under the heading "range of . . ." is found the range of minima, maxima, means, and medians. Thus, the institution with the lowest minimum professorial salary among those represented in Table I is \$5000; the highest minimum in this group is \$9000. Minimum salaries in other institutions in this group lie at or between these two figures. The range of maxima is \$6750 to \$15,000. This indicates that the highest paid professor in the institution with the lowest maximum receives \$6750 and the highest professorial salary is \$15,000. The range of arithmetic means is to be similarly interpreted. That is, the institution with the lowest mean salary shows an average of \$5703 and the highest mean for the rank is \$11,132. The range of medians is established similarly.

Under the heading "mean of . . ." in the tables, arithmetic means were taken of the minima, maxima, means, and medians of the indicated group. In taking these averages, variations in the size of the institutions are ignored, *i. e.*, each institution is treated as though it were of equal size with others in the group. These calculations are not, therefore, unduly influenced by the large institutions.

Although of analytical value, the means shown in the following tables must be interpreted with some caution. In the first place, all of the distributions of salaries are skew distributions, and some of the distributions for higher ranks are badly skew. It is well known that the errors introduced by calculating arithmetic means¹ from frequency distributions do not cancel when the distributions are badly skew. We know, therefore, on general theoretical grounds, that our means are somewhat biased, and that usually the bias is upward because of the nature of the skewness. There is some evidence by which this bias can be appraised in certain

¹Arithmetic means were computed by using the mid-point of the interval except when there was evidence of concentrations at other values in the classes at the extremes of the distributions.

cases. For example, a number of institutions have provided independently computed arithmetic means and medians in addition to the frequency distribution of their salaries. Their means are, in a number of cases, below the values derived by us from the frequency distributions. We assume in these cases that the calculations provided us are made from ungrouped data.

When the means are used to interpret annual changes particular caution is needed. This is because the mean salary for any single rank within a single institution is a weighted average. As suggested earlier, it is possible for the mean to go up or down simply because of a re-distribution of the staff among and within the ranks. For example, a highly paid assistant professor may be advanced to become a relatively poorly paid associate professor. True, this individual would receive an increase in both rank and salary, but the effect of this change is to reduce the mean pay of the assistant professors, since a highly paid member has been promoted, and to reduce also the average pay of associate professors, since a relatively poorly paid member has been added to that rank. Similar effects appear when new appointments are made near the minimum salary of the rank which they enter. Because of the expansions of staff in institutions of higher learning during recent years and the fluid promotion practice found in many institutions, it is probable that the change in arithmetic means for the various ranks understates the actual increase in the general level of salary scales. We have no way to appraise the magnitude of this effect nor to compare it with the biases running in the opposite direction mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

The Committee deems it proper to draw attention to these limitations of the data. However, after careful analysis of these limitations, it is the considered opinion of the Committee that the means may be used for comparisons because (1) biases of the type first discussed may be expected to be reasonably constant from year to year, thus permitting valid conclusions with respect to yearly changes in annual averages; (2) the bias, where its magnitude can be appraised, appears to be rather small relative to the size of the means themselves; and finally, (3) there is some evidence that there are compensating effects when averages are combined to get the "mean of means."

Studies similar to this¹ have used medians exclusively to report comparable salary data because medians are less influenced by the extreme values which characterize skew frequency distributions. Careful analysis of the salary distributions before the Committee, however, reveals their essentially discontinuous nature—that is, in each rank and for each institution there seem to be definite points at which the data concentrate, though these are not the same points for each of the institutions. In most schedules of salaries there is a round number tendency. In such situations, there are difficulties in the use of the median, since the assumption of a regular distribution of the values through the median class is often not an actual condition.

In this study, both arithmetic means and medians are reported. Taken together, they reveal more about the distribution of salaries than does either of the measures taken separately. When the median is higher than the mean, more persons receive salaries above the mean than below it, and conversely when the median is below the mean.

It was the judgment of the Committee that the best solution to the statistical problems under consideration was to combine the frequency distributions of all reporting institutions of a given classification and to analyze these data as though they were for one large institution. The advantages of this method are that the combined data are smoother and more continuous than are those for any single institution and permit the computation of more acceptable averages. Due to the limitation of time it was impossible to do this for more than but one group of institutions, namely, the state universities, with the results shown on Charts I through IV. The method of interpreting these charts is given on the page immediately preceding them in this report.

Although the limitations of data have been emphasized in this report, the Committee believes that these data can be used by members and Chapters of the Association and administrative

¹ "A Survey of Teachers' Salaries in Engineering Schools and a Comparison of these with Salaries Paid to Engineers in Non-Teaching Employment and with Teachers' Salaries in Other Professional Schools." Committee on Faculty Salaries of the Engineering College Administrative Council and the American Society for Engineering Education under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, June, 1949.

officers of institutions of higher learning to analyze the relative positions of their institutions with respect to the relevant classifications.

ALBERT H. IMLAH (History), Tufts College, *Chairman*

JEWELL HUGHES BUSHEY (Mathematics), Hunter College

JAMES HOLLADAY (Economics), University of Alabama

HAROLD N. LEE (Philosophy), Tulane University of Louisiana

VERNON A. MUND (Economics), University of Washington

WILLIAM A. NEISWANGER (Economics), University of Illinois

NOTE: The Tables and Charts referred to in the report are on the pages that follow.

STATISTICAL TABLES

I. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: NEW ENGLAND
(9 INSTITUTIONS, SMALL, MEDIUM, AND LARGE)

	<i>Professors*</i>	<i>Associate Professors*</i>	<i>Assistant Professors</i>	<i>Instructors</i>
<i>Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)</i>				
Range of:				
Minima	\$5000-9,000	\$3750-6000	\$3200-4500	\$2000-3500
Maxima	6750-15,000	5250-7500	4100-5550	3400-4350
Means	5703-11,132	4546-6570	3646-4556	2935-3739
Medians	5750-11,000	4500-6600	3500-4500	2925-3750
Mean of:				
Minima	\$6247	\$4778	\$3853	\$2810
Maxima	9348	6265	4839	3825
Means 1948-49	7331	5391	4275	3216
1949-50	7413	5396	4230	3308
Medians	7426	5333	4195	3329
Median of:				
Minima	\$5737	\$4875	\$3900	\$2940
Maxima	7625	6050	4700	3700
Means	6791	5176	4300	3226
Medians	7045	5187	4292	3500
<i>Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %</i>				
Minimum	22.9	7.9	17.9	14.0
Maximum	50.8	25.9	32.2	28.1
Mean	35.4	17.3	24.0	21.7
Median	31.8	15.6	23.5	22.2
<i>Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member</i>		<i>Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries</i>		
	1948-49	1949-50	1948-49	1949-50
Minimum	10.6	10.1	\$242	\$288
Maximum	23.1	19.9	508	543
Mean	15.3	14.3	427	466
Median	12.7	12.9	461	478

* 8 institutions.

II. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: MIDDLE ATLANTIC
(10 INSTITUTIONS) SMALL, MEDIUM, AND LARGE

	<i>Professors</i>	<i>Associate Professors</i>	<i>Assistant Professors</i>	<i>Instructors</i>
<i>Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)</i>				
Range of:				
Minima	\$4500-8,000	\$3600-6000	\$3000-4000	\$2200-3000
Maxima	8000-15,500	4750-9000	4000-7300	3250-4200
Means	6138-9,585	4636-6389	3508-4648	2822-3440
Medians	6000-9,000	4625-6000	3400-4500	2800-3500
Mean of:				
Minima	\$5,860	\$4460	\$3525	\$2485
Maxima	10,970	6690	5245	3825
Means 1948-49	7,085	5223	4059	3013*
1949-50	7,113	5304	4139	3193*
Medians	6,957	5247	4063	3200*

Median of:				
Minima	\$ 6,000	\$4250	\$3500	\$2450
Maxima	10,500	6675	5125	4000
Means	6,769	5248	4162	3235
Medians	6,500	5175	4050	3146
<i>Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %</i>				
Minimum	23.4	17.9	16.9	6.8
Maximum	40.9	32.8	41.3	33.8
Mean	31.7	22.1	25.2	21.0
Median	30.5	20.7	24.4	20.9
<i>Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member</i>		<i>Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries</i>		
	1948-49	1949-50	1948-49	1949-50
Minimum	9.3	9.1	Minimum	\$352
Maximum	21.8	23.5	Maximum	\$376
Mean	13.8	13.1	Mean	643
Median	12.9	11.8	Median	463
				500
				510

* 9 institutions.

III. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: NORTH CENTRAL (6 INSTITUTIONS, SMALL, MEDIUM, AND LARGE)

	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
<i>Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)</i>				
<i>Range of:</i>				
Minima	\$4000- 5,700	\$3000-4700	\$3000-4000	\$2250-3000
Maxima	5200-11,500	4500-8000*	4200-7500	3000-5100
Means	5000- 7,728	3990-5733	3222-4706	2875-3730
Medians	5083- 7,700	4000-5700	3600-4600	2891-3600
<i>Mean of:</i>				
Minima	\$4867	\$3992	\$3417	\$2725
Maxima	8275	6192	5367	4017
Means 1948-49	6264	4863	3951	3139
1949-50	6398	4907	4080	3246
Medians	6239	4830	4117	3225
<i>Median of:</i>				
Minima	\$4900	\$4200	\$3400	\$2750
Maxima	8250	6225	4850	4000
Means	6490	5136	4196	3178
Medians	6327	4997	4179	3202
<i>Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %</i>				
Minimum	17.7	18.1	14.8	9.7
Maximum	39.0	29.3	30.1	45.5
Mean	27.2	24.1	24.3	24.4
Median	27.8	24.0	25.2	23.1
<i>Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member</i>		<i>Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries</i>		
	1948-49	1949-50	1948-49	1949-50
Minimum	12.4	11.3	Minimum	\$310
Maximum	21.9	21.3	Maximum	459
Mean	16.1	15.1	Mean	375
Median	14.6	13.0	Median	370
				387

* One appointment above formal maximum. Disregarding this case the figure would be \$7500.

IV. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: SOUTH
(4 INSTITUTIONS, MEDIUM AND LARGE)

	<i>Professors</i>	<i>Associate Professors</i>	<i>Assistant Professors</i>	<i>Instructors</i>
<i>Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)</i>				
Range of:				
Minima	\$4200- 5,500	\$4000-4200	\$3000-3600	\$2000-2800
Maxima	7250-10,000	5000-8000	4500-5400	3600-4000
Means	5720- 6,935	4658-5097	3994-4339	3079-3317
Medians	5555- 7,000	4639-5150	4028-4500	3121-3400
Mean of:				
Minima	\$4863	\$4125	\$3375	\$2500
Maxima	8813	6175	4950	3738
Means 1948-49	6081	4698	4057	3135
1949-50	6307	4876	4136	3224
Medians	6174	4814	4212	3244
Median of:				
Minima	\$4875	\$4150	\$3450	\$2600
Maxima	9000	5850	4950	3675
Means	6286	4874	4106	3251
Medians	6070	4734	4160	3228
<i>Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %</i>				
Minimum	19.1	18.6	22.9	18.0
Maximum	32.8	22.3	37.1	27.1
Mean	27.9	20.1	29.1	22.9
Median	29.8	19.8	28.2	23.3
<i>Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member</i>		<i>Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries</i>		
	1948-49	1949-50	1948-49	1949-50
Minimum	15.8	15.4	Minimum	\$257
Maximum	18.9	17.2	Maximum	354
Mean	17.9	16.6	Mean	287
Median	18.5	16.8	Median	268

V. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: PACIFIC
(4 INSTITUTIONS, SMALL AND LARGE)

	<i>Professors</i>	<i>Associate Professors</i>	<i>Assistant Professors</i>	<i>Instructors</i>
<i>Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)</i>				
Range of:				
Minima	\$3800- 5,500	\$3700-4500	\$3100-3850	\$1800-3200
Maxima	5500-12,000	4550-7000	4000-5550	3500-4300
Means	4849- 7,466	4156-5396	3532-4322	2687-3391
Medians	4700- 7,125	4083-5214	3453-4164	2667-3250
Mean of:				
Minima	\$4888	\$4188	\$3463	\$2563
Maxima	7400	5288	4513	3763
Means 1948-49	5721	4478	3694	2944
1949-50	5860	4648	3866	3153
Medians	5699	4552	3758	2667

Median of:					
Minima	\$5125	\$4275	\$3450	\$2675	
Maxima	6050	4800	4250	3675	
Means	5563	4520	3805	3267	
Medians	5486	4450	3708	3170	
<i>Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %</i>					
Minimum	26.7	20.0	12.2	16.4	
Maximum	41.2	31.1	33.3	27.0	
Mean	32.2	23.1	23.8	20.9	
Median	30.5	20.5	24.9	20.1	
<i>Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member</i>		<i>Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries</i>			
	1948-49	1949-50	1948-49	1949-50	
Minimum	12.5	9.8	Minimum	\$331	\$343
Maximum	22.6	22.9	Maximum	449	510
Mean	16.1	14.9	Mean	385	428
Median	14.6	13.5	Median	380	430

VI. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: 6 SMALL INSTITUTIONS (UP TO 1200 STUDENTS)
IN NEW ENGLAND AND MIDDLE ATLANTIC

	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors	
Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)					
Range of:					
Minima	\$5100-6000	\$3600-5000	\$3000-4000	\$2400-3000	
Maxima	7250-9030	5250-6400	4400-5000	3400-4179	
Means	6211-7131	5000-5385	3775-4375	3065-3465	
Medians	6000-7500	4750-5500	3600-4300	3000-3560	
Mean of:					
Minima	\$5679	\$4595	\$3643	\$2857	
Maxima	8130	5803	4650	3797	
Means 1948-49	6535	5105	4059	3021	
1949-50	6697	5189	4112	3277	
Medians	6765	5191	4114	3331	
Median of:					
Minima	\$5737	\$4685	\$3690	\$2970	
Maxima	8000	5750	4600	3700	
Means	6632	5176	4092	3246	
Medians	6607	5198	4245	3362	
Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %					
Minimum	25.0	7.9	19.1	6.8	
Maximum	50.8	25.0	41.3	23.2	
Mean	37.1	15.9	29.2	17.9	
Median	36.6	14.0	29.3	21.5	
Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member		Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries			
	1948-49	1949-50		1948-49	1949-50
Minimum	10.6	10.1	Minimum	\$356	\$416
Maximum	16.6	14.7	Maximum	508	529
Mean	12.4	11.6	Mean	447	478
Median	12.0	11.4	Median	453	472

VII. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: 5 SMALL INSTITUTIONS (UP TO 1200 STUDENTS)
IN NORTH CENTRAL AND PACIFIC

	<i>Professors</i>	<i>Associate Professors</i>	<i>Assistant Professors</i>	<i>Instructors</i>
<i>Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)</i>				
Range of:				
Minima	\$3900-5250	\$3000-4350	\$3000-3600	\$1900-2800
Maxima	5200-8500	4500-4800	4000-4300	3000-3750
Means	4849-6000	3990-4575	3222-3872	2687-3375
Medians	4700-5525	4000-4500	3453-3750	2667-3250
Mean of:				
Minima	\$4490	\$3720	\$3240	\$2490
Maxima	6280	4660	4200	3450
Means 1948-49	5376	4204	3500	2849
1949-50	5395	4249	3593	2999
Medians	5251	4218	3617	2962
Median of:				
Minima	\$4300	\$3700	\$3200	\$2600
Maxima	6000	4700	4200	3500
Means	5545	4156	3600	2900
Medians	5446	4100	3614	2900
<i>Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %</i>				
Minimum	26.7	18.1	12.2	9.7
Maximum	39.0	31.1	33.3	27.0
Mean	30.9	23.8	25.1	20.2
Median	29.7	20.3	28.1	20.3
<i>Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member</i>		<i>Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries</i>		
	1848-49	1949-50	1948-49	1949-50
Minimum	12.4	9.8	Minimum \$310	\$348
Maximum	16.1	13.9	Maximum	449
Mean	14.0	12.5	Mean	371
Median	13.9	13.0	Median	360

VIII. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: FIVE MEDIUM-SIZED INSTITUTIONS (1200 TO
4000 STUDENTS) IN NEW ENGLAND AND MIDDLE ATLANTIC

	<i>Professors*</i>	<i>Associate Professors*</i>	<i>Assistant Professors</i>	<i>Instructors</i>
<i>Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)</i>				
Range of:				
Minima	\$4500-7,000	\$3700-5000	\$3000-4000	\$2000-2850
Maxima	7750-12,500	6600-9000	5250-5750	4000-4350
Means	5943-8,200	5088-5718	4001-4556	2935-3739
Medians	6071-8,036	4938-5716	3874-4500	2925-3750
Mean of:				
Minima	\$ 5,625	\$4113	\$3520	\$2460
Maxima	10,813	7338	5490	4070
Means 1948-49	6,922	5217	4191	3259
1949-50	7,021	5355	4243	3324
Medians	7,077	5314	4219	3416
Median of:				
Minima	\$ 5,500	\$3875	\$3500	\$2500
Maxima	11,500	6875	5500	4000

Means	6,921	5308	4238	3350	
Medians	6,900	5300	4300	3500	
<i>Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %</i>					
Minimum	22.9	19.3	17.9	14.0	
Maximum	30.4	25.9	35.4	29.7	
Mean	26.4	21.4	26.2	21.9	
Median	26.1	20.3	26.2	23.6	
<i>Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member</i>		<i>Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries</i>			
	<i>1948-49</i>	<i>1949-50</i>		<i>1948-49</i>	<i>1949-50</i>
Minimum	12.7	11.8	Minimum	\$242	\$288
Maximum	20.9	18.9	Maximum	506	548
Mean	14.7	13.6	Mean	428	470
Median	13.1	12.4	Median	461	504

* 4 institutions.

IX. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED:
5 LARGE INSTITUTIONS IN NEW ENGLAND AND MIDDLE ATLANTIC

	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors	
<i>Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)</i>					
Range of:					
Minima	\$ 5,000- 9,000	\$4250-6000	\$3250-4500	\$2200-3500	
Maxima	10,000-15,500	6500-8000	4500-7300	3500-4000	
Means	6,903-11,132	5195-6570	4233-4648	3104-3552	
Medians	6,500-11,000	5100-6600	4100-4500	2800-3500	
Mean of:					
Minima	\$ 7,200	\$5270	\$4010	\$2670	
Maxima	13,900	7400	5660	3880	
Means 1948-49	8,871	5993	4502	3247*	
1949-50	8,767	5966	4604	3370*	
Medians	8,396	5790	4359	3273*	
Median of:					
Minima	\$ 8,000	\$5100	\$4000	\$2400	
Maxima	15,000	7500	5500	4000	
Means	9,192	6225	4506	3179	
Medians	8,500	6000	4393	3091	
<i>Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %</i>					
Minimum	27.3	17.0	16.9	16.3	
Maximum	47.8	23.6	22.3	32.2	
Mean	36.1	20.3	20.0	23.7	
Median	35.3	20.7	19.4	23.0	
<i>Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member</i>		<i>Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries</i>			
	1948-49	1949-50		1948-49	1949-50
Minimum	14.6	15.1	Minimum	\$352	\$376
Maximum	23.4	23.5	Maximum	477	543
Mean	19.6	18.3	Mean	406	455
Median	19.4	17.6	Median	411	442

* 4 institutions.

X. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED:
3 LARGE INSTITUTIONS IN NORTH CENTRAL AND PACIFIC

	<i>Professors</i>	<i>Associate Professors</i>	<i>Assistant Professors</i>	<i>Instructors</i>
<i>Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)</i>				
Range of:				
Means	\$6519-7728	\$5112-5733	\$4219-4706	\$3136-3730
Medians	6203-7700	5044-5700	4158-4600	3154-3600
Mean of:				
Minima	\$ 4,833	\$4300	\$3483	\$2817
Maxima	10,833	7500	6500	4417
Means 1948-49	7,043	5377	4306	3257
1949-50	7,238	5414	4416	3419
Medians	7,009	5319	4307	3331
Median of:				
Minima	\$ 5,500	\$4400	\$3600	\$3000
Maxima	11,500	7500	6500	4500
Means	7,466	5396	4322	3391
Medians	7,125	5214	4164	3239
<i>Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %</i>				
Minimum	20.2	20.8	21.6	16.4
Maximum	41.2	24.7	27.7	28.9
Mean	30.7	22.9	24.0	22.5
Median	30.6	23.2	22.6	22.1

*Average Number of Students for Each
Full-Time Faculty Member*

	1948-49	1949-50
Minimum	20.3	19.3
Maximum	22.6	22.9
Mean	21.5	21.2
Median	21.9	21.3

*Average Amount per Student Spent
for All Instructional Salaries*

	1948-49	1949-50
Minimum	\$320	\$323
Maximum	405	417
Mean	352	361
Median	331	343

XI. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED:
3 WOMEN'S COLLEGES IN NEW ENGLAND AND MIDDLE ATLANTIC

	<i>Professors</i>	<i>Associate Professors</i>	<i>Assistant Professors</i>	<i>Instructors</i>
<i>Instructional Salaries (9-10 month basis)</i>				
Range of:				
Means	\$5703-6500	\$4546-4642	\$3508-3946	\$2822-3094
Medians	5750-6153	4500-4700	3400-3915	2800-3000
Mean of:				
Minima	\$5333	\$4150	\$3467	\$2500
Maxima	7317	5283	4117	3300
Means 1948-49	6080	4630	3730	2884
1949-50	6114	4608	3700	2941
Medians	5968	4567	3605	2883

Median of:				
Minima	\$5000	\$4200	\$3500	\$2500
Maxima	7200	5500	4100	3400
Means	6138	4636	3646	2907
Medians	6000	4500	3500	2850

Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %

Minimum	27.8	19.9	18.0	13.4
Maximum	35.8	32.8	23.5	33.8
Mean	30.8	25.8	20.0	23.3
Median	28.9	24.8	18.5	22.8

*Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member**Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries*

	1948-49	1949-50		1948-49	1949-50
Maximum	9.3	9.1	Minimum	\$474	\$509
Maximum	10.9	11.3	Maximum	643	640
Mean	10.0	10.1	Mean	541	568
Median	9.7	9.8	Median	506	554

XII. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: THREE INSTITUTES OF TECHNOLOGY

	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
<i>Instructional Salaries (11-12 month basis)</i>				
Range of:				
Means	\$8700-9700	\$6600-6850	\$4710-5450	\$3800-4500
Medians	8000-9100	6300-6594	5000-5200	3500-4500
Mean of:				
Minima	\$ 6,633	\$5367	\$4300	\$2933
Maxima	13,167	8267	6367	5076
Means	9,043	6685	5135	4069
Medians	8,617	6465	5125	3958
Median of:				
Minima	\$ 6,500	\$5300	\$4400	\$3000
Maxima	14,000	8300	6500	5280
Means	8,728	6604	5245	3906
Medians	8,750	6500	5156	3875

Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty (9-10 and 11-12 month basis), %

Minimum	17.7	22.0	14.8	6.7
Maximum	52.9	26.4	26.8	45.5
Mean	31.1	24.3	19.2	25.4
Median	22.7	24.4	16.0	24.1

*Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member**Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries*

	1949-50		1948-49	1949-50
Minimum	10.0	Minimum	\$420	\$478
Maximum	11.6	Maximum	820	978
Mean	11.0	Mean	679	771
Median	11.3	Median	796	858

XIII. STATE UNIVERSITIES (SIX INSTITUTIONS IN NORTH CENTRAL AND PACIFIC)

	Professors		Associate Professors		Assistant Professors		Instructors	
	9 or 10 months	11 or 12 months*	9 or 10 months	11 or 12 months*	9 or 10 months	11 or 12 months*	9 or 10 months	11 or 12 months†
<i>Instructional Salaries</i>								
Range of:								
Minima	\$5000-6,600	\$5750-7,800	\$4250-5400	\$3750-6,300	\$3500-4200	\$3000-4000	\$2250-3500	\$2500-4500
Maxima	9500-15,400	9500-14,500	6500-9500	7250-12,500	5000-7000	5400-8250	3750-6500	4500-6000
Means	6825-7,840	7826-8,489	5203-5828	6125-6,778	4201-4804	5000-5410	3270-3875	3619-4500
Medians	6646-7,710	7713-8,350	5148-5683	5709-6,520	4144-4711	5025-5267	3143-3900	3875-4500
Mean of:								
Minima	\$5,658	\$6,510	\$4726	\$5260	\$3834	\$3860	\$2987	\$3250
Maxima	11,900	11,800	7333	8710	5924	6580	4783	5438
Means 1948-49	7,054	7,770	5313	5939	4323	4857	3385	3794
1949-50	7,449	8,237	5572	6449	4501	5162	3568	4151
Medians	7,208	8,026	5514	6285	4493	5180	3563	4169
Median of:								
Minima	\$5,675	\$6,250	\$4728	\$5250	\$3828	\$4000	\$2985	\$3000
Maxima	11,625	11,000	6750	8000	5900	6250	4650	5625
Means	7,626	8,290	5615	6595	4439	5087	3580	4242
Medians	7,269	8,010	5559	6365	4482	5208	3577	4155
<i>Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %</i>								
Minimum	16.0	2.8	11.6	1.0	16.8	1.7	9.9	3.2
Maximum	31.5	9.2	17.7	6.5	30.7	10.5	29.4	10.2
Mean	21.4	6.1	14.5	4.6	21.7	6.9	23.6	6.3
Median	20.7	6.2	14.3	4.6	20.5	6.9	25.4	4.2
<i>Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member</i>								
	1948-49		1949-50		1948-49		1949-50	
Minimum	15.5		13.5		\$243		\$274	
Maximum	31.4		27.4		283		335	
Mean	24.3		21.7		263		301	
Median	24.4		22.6		265		291	
<i>Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries*</i>								

* Five institutions. † Four institutions.

CUMULATIVE SALARY DISTRIBUTIONS AND MEDIAN SALARIES

In each of the first four charts that follow, two curves labeled "Less than cumulation" and "More than cumulation" show the distribution of the salaries of teachers by rank in 6 large state universities for the academic year 1949-50. In Chart I, for example, these two curves show the distribution of the salaries of 1938 professors in these 6 universities for the academic year 1949-50. The comments that follow are in reference to the interpretation of these charts as exemplified by Chart I.

If the concern of the reader in Chart I is with the question, "What percentage of the professors in these 6 institutions receive \$8000 or more a year?" the answer is found by locating the figure \$8000 on the base of the chart, then moving vertically from this value to the point at which the "More than cumulation" curve is intersected and then moving horizontally to the scale on the left margin of the chart, where the percentage of the staff receiving \$8000 or more will be found. The figure is approximately 30 per cent. If the question is, "What percentage of the professors in these 6 institutions receive less than \$8000?" pass the vertical line upward from \$8000 on the base until it intersects the "Less than cumulation" curve and then move horizontally to the scale on the left margin of the chart, where it will be found that approximately 70 per cent receive less than \$8000 a year. The percentage receiving more or less than any value within the range of values on the base of the chart can be determined in this way.

If the concern of the reader is with the median, this is found at the point on the chart at which the "More than cumulation" and "Less than cumulation" curves intersect. By dropping directly from this point of intersection of the two curves to the base of the chart the median value will be found, which in this case is \$7350. Chart I shows that 50 per cent receive more and 50 per cent receive less than the amount of this median value. The twenty-fifth and seventy-fifth percentiles are indicated also on this chart. The range of the annual salaries for professors may be observed on the base of the chart as running from \$5000 to approximately \$15,000.

(Continued on p. 747)

CHART I—PROFESSORS

Cumulative Salary Distribution, Six Large State Universities, 9 to 10-Month Appointments, 1949-1950

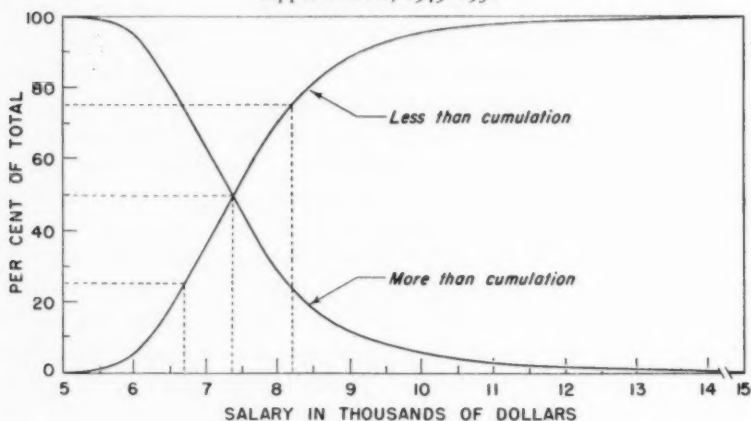


CHART II—ASSOCIATE PROFESSORS

Cumulative Salary Distribution, Six Large State Universities, 9 to 10-Month Appointments, 1949-1950

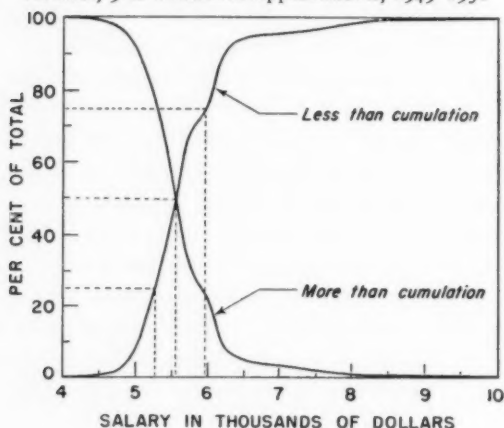


CHART III—ASSISTANT PROFESSORS

Cumulative Salary Distribution, Six Large State Universities, 9 to 10-Month Appointments, 1949-1950

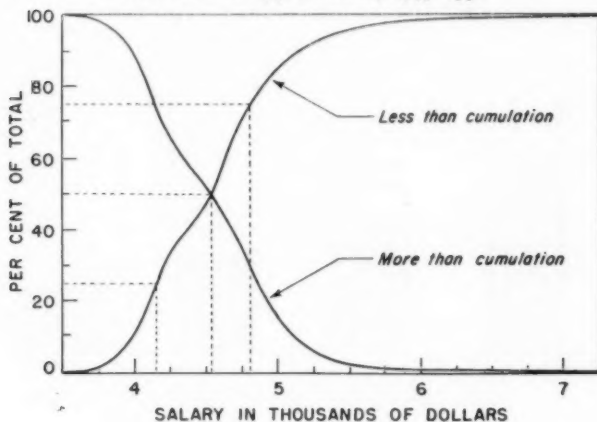


CHART IV—INSTRUCTORS

Cumulative Salary Distribution, Six Large State Universities, 9 to 10-Month Appointments, 1949-1950

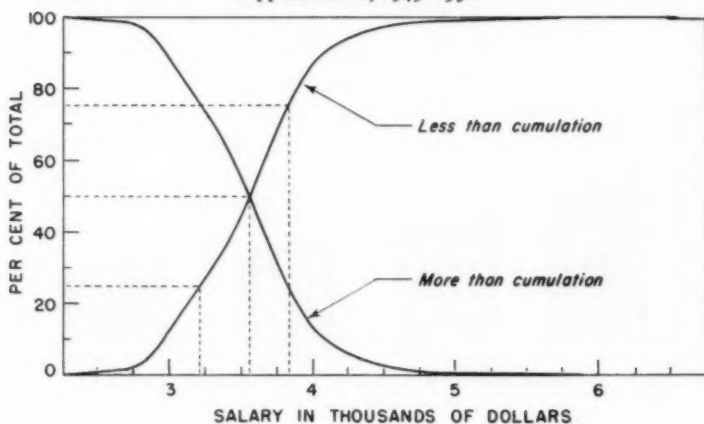


CHART V—MEDIAN SALARIES, NEW ENGLAND AND MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES

9 to 10-Month Appointments, 1949-1950

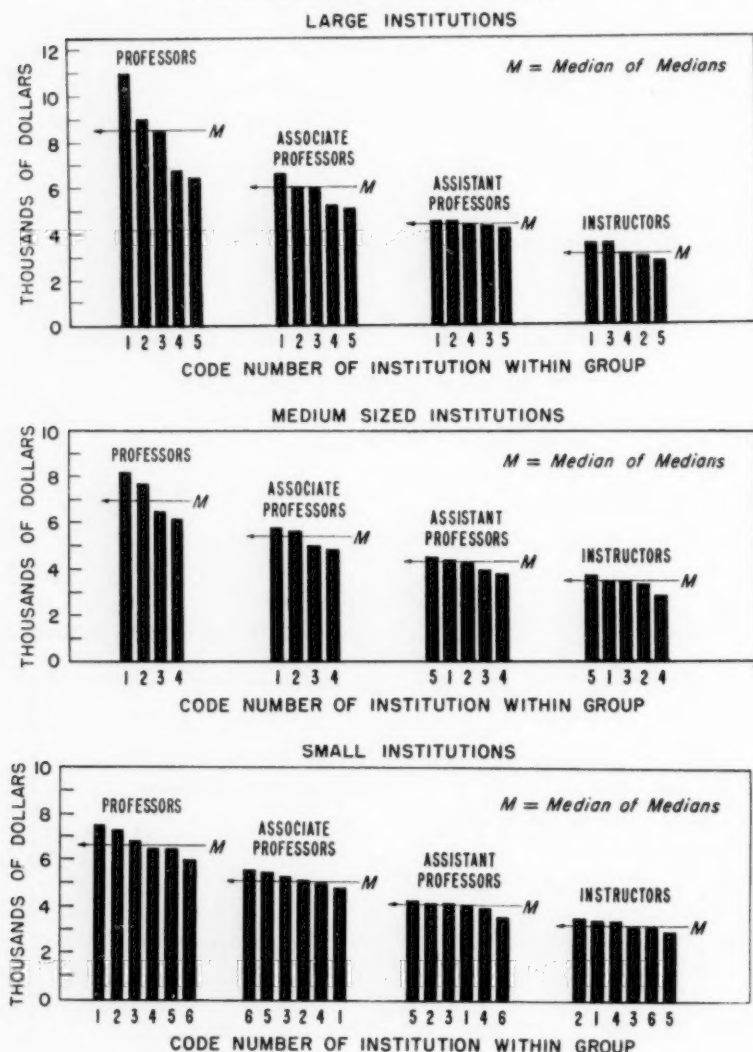
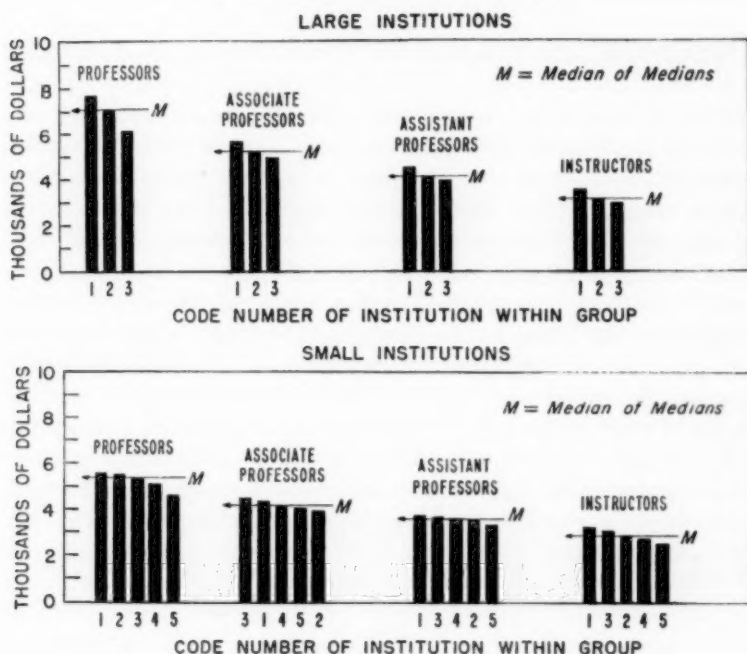


CHART VI—MEDIAN SALARIES, NORTH CENTRAL AND PACIFIC STATES
9 to 10-Month Appointments 1949-1950



(Continued from p. 743)

By the use of Charts I to IV any teacher may compare his salary status with that of the combined personnel of the 6 state universities; and any group, having computed the mean or median salary by ranks for an institution, may find its relative position in these distributions. Of even greater importance, cumulative distributions for single institutions may be prepared, and may be compared with the combined salary distributions of the 6 state universities.

Charts V and VI are concerned with median salaries in the several academic ranks in different sized institutions in the New England and Middle Atlantic States, and in the North Central and Pacific States.

INDIVIDUAL FEDERAL INCOME TAX IN 1950

During 1949 Congress passed some legislation affecting the Internal Revenue Code (hereinafter referred to by the abbreviation I.R.C.), but made no changes relevant to the topics of this article. There was, however, some relevant judicial and administrative action, to which references are made at appropriate points. The writer takes it for granted that members of the educational profession are now reasonably familiar with the important consequences to the individual taxpayer flowing from the Revenue Act of 1948 and does not repeat the exposition of those changes which appears in the Winter, 1948 issue of the *Bulletin*. Viewed at large, the return forms and instruction pamphlet for 1949 are substantially identical with those for 1948. Hence it is possible to proceed without further introduction to working comment upon those items not adequately explained by the instructions or the forms themselves.

Return Forms, Particularly 1040

The items of Form 1040 (printed on white paper) are made the points of reference. So far as comment is also relevant to the simpler Form 1040A (printed on yellow paper), there will be no difficulty in bridging it across.

Page 1, Item 2, Wages, salaries, etc: This item involves a number of specialized considerations material to teachers.

Long-term work: It is reasonably common for a teacher to participate in a long-term project involving rendition of personal services which entitle him to lump sum compensation at their completion. He may, for instance, carry out a contract to write a book requiring prolonged preliminary investigation to compile the necessary information. If these personal services cover 36 calendar months or more from beginning to completion, and the author receives at least 80 per centum of his total compensation in one taxable year, the income tax attributable to any part of the receipt which is included in his gross income shall not be greater

than the aggregate of taxes attributable thereto if this part had been included in gross income ratably over that part of the period of work preceding the date of receipt. I.R.C. §107(a).

There is also special statutory provision for handling the related case in which a teacher, working independently and not under contract, receives in one taxable year a large proportion of the gross income in respect of an invention or a literary, musical, or artistic composition which it takes him a long time to perfect or produce. Details of this provision are very intricate. The minimum work period is again 36 calendar months, and the taxpayer must receive in the one taxable year at least four times as much gross income from this source as he receives "therefrom in previous taxable years and the twelve months immediately succeeding the close of the taxable year..." I.R.C. §107(b). Compliance with the requirements of the provision results in limitation of "the tax attributable to the part of such gross income of the taxable year which is not taxable as a gain from the sale or exchange of a capital asset held for more than 6 months" to an amount "not...greater than the aggregate of the taxes attributable to such part had it been received ratably over that part of the period preceding the close of the taxable year but not more than thirty-six calendar months." See also the comment below on *Page 2, Schedule D, Gains and losses from sales or exchanges* (p. 758).

Retirement allowance contributions: Many teachers in active service must decide whether they are bound to include, as part of gross income, contributions to the cost of deferred retirement annuities made by the institutions which these teachers serve. Under some retirement plans, educational institutions have set up trusts to which periodical payments are made for the ultimate benefit of teachers after retirement. Probably comparatively few such arrangements are now in operation, and any teacher participating under such a plan will do best to ascertain from the financial officers in charge whether he is bound to treat as gross income the contributions made for his benefit by the employer institution. The other and much more common method of handling the retirement problem is to purchase deferred annuity policies from the T.I.A.A. or an ordinary insurance company. This second situation is explicitly covered by I.R.C. §22(b)(2)(B) and by Regulations

III, §29.22(b)(2)-5, the latter explaining that, if an employer is an organization exempt from income tax because operated for educational purposes, an employee is not required to include in his current income the amount contributed by the employer for purchase of a retirement annuity contract. A teacher *is* required to include in current gross income the amount currently contributed by deduction from his gross salary for purchase of such a contract. As to the taxability of annuity payments after retirement, particularly Carnegie and connected payments, see p. 754 (paragraph with inset head *Page 2, Schedule A, Income from annuities or pensions*).

In governmentally supported educational institutions retirement and death benefits are built up by mandatory pay-roll deductions and contributions from the government. As in the cases already mentioned, the amounts of the pay-roll deductions must be included in current gross income of the teachers. The governmental contributions are not so includible. I.T. 3362, 1940-1 C.B. 18,¹ pay-roll deductions, and 454 CCH ¶6181,² special ruling of April 13, 1945, employer's contributions.

Fellowships and like awards: The instructions accompanying Form 1040 list on p. 5 "contest prizes" among "Examples of Income Which Must be Reported." As applied to teachers, this listing calls for some qualification. Scholarships and fellowships received in recognition of scholarly attainment or promise are not subject to tax, *e. g.*, the fellowship, scholarship, or grant from a foundation in recognition of scientific achievement. G.C.M. 5881, VIII-1 C.B. 68.³ *McDermott v. Commissioner*, 150 F. 2d 585 (D.C.App., 1945)—a decision by the District of Columbia Court of Appeals; "F. 2d" means Federal Reporter, Second Series—held exempt a Ross Essay Prize for legal writing and stated that the same principle applied to Nobel Prizes, Guggenheim Fellowships, and Rhodes Scholarships. In July, 1949, the Bureau of Internal Revenue served notice by a published ruling (I.T. 3960,

¹ "C.B." means the periodical cumulative edition of the Internal Revenue Bulletin; "1940-1" refers to the cumulative issue for the first half of 1940; "I.T." designates a ruling by the income tax unit in the Bureau of Internal Revenue.

² This reference is to the Commerce Clearing House Standard Federal Tax Service for 1945, Vol. IV.

³ This is a General Counsel's Memorandum issued in 1929. At that time the convenient practice of indicating the date by the titling of the C.B. had not been adopted.

1949-2 C.B.—) that it disagrees with the *McDermott* case, and will treat as taxable income Ross Essay Prizes for 1949 and future years. The 1949 Ross Essay Prize went to Ernest Wilkerson of Casper, Wyoming. If he resolutely litigates the tax question, his case would normally come before the United States Court of Appeals for the Tenth Circuit, which might or might not agree with the District of Columbia *McDermott* decision. In case of disagreement between the lower courts, the stage will probably be set for a decision by the Supreme Court of the United States.

Scholars, like everybody else, will be taxed on winnings from sweepstakes, guessing contests, or other contests involving participation by the prize winner. I.T. 1651, II-1 C.B. 54, and I.T. 1667, II-1 C.B. 83. There was held to be no taxability, however, when a lady won a prize simply because her name and telephone number were drawn, and she was on hand to answer when called. *Washburn*, 5 T.C. 1333 (1945)—“T.C.” means Tax Court of the United States.

It will be observed that in the foregoing cases the grantors or donors of the awards were not employers of the recipients. An award from an employer, even a tax-exempt institution, is far more likely to be treated as taxable compensation for personal services. *Strauss*, T.C. memo. opinion, 6 TCM 830, Dec. 15, 915 (M) (1947), compromised and remanded 48-1 USTC ¶9269; Regs. 111, §29.22(a)-1 and 2; I.T. 1262, I-1 C.B. 71. Half-salary sabbatical grants to professors of a college when on leave were ruled not taxable to the recipients when paid from income of a testamentary trust established for this purpose. I.T. 1343, I-1 C.B. 213.¹ Half-salary paid by the employing college or university to professors on leave will, on the contrary, be held taxable.

Adjusted gross income—allowable deductions from wages, salaries, etc.: Certain deductions are allowed for purposes of reducing gross income to adjusted gross income. Those most likely to be available to a teacher are “expenses of travel, meals, and lodging while away from home, paid or incurred” by him “in connection with the performance by him of services” as a teacher, and allowable deduc-

¹ Unpredictability of beneficiaries may have had something to do with this result; the ruling states that income of the fund is taxable to the fiduciary. Observe that the identity of a Ross Essay Prize winner is even less surely predictable.

tions other than the foregoing "which consist of expenses paid or incurred" by the teacher in this same connection "under a reimbursement or other expense allowance arrangement with his employer." I.R.C. §22(n)(2) and (3). The limited deductions thus permitted correspond to deductions otherwise permissible in calculating net income. But shifting them into the earlier process of calculating adjusted gross income has practical significance because their subtraction in that process does not prevent the taxpayer from using the standard deduction.

In connection with teachers' traveling expenses an annoying difficulty has manifested itself during 1949. A ruling of respectably long standing states that expenses of transportation and meals and lodging incurred in attending teachers' conventions in this country, if not reimbursed, are deductible ordinary and necessary business expenses in computation of net income. I.T. 3448, 1941-1 C.B. 206.¹ This ruling would seem equally applicable to computation of adjusted gross income, for Regs. 111, §22(n)-1 say: "Traveling expenses paid or incurred by an employee in connection with his employment while away from home which are deductible from gross income in computing net income may be deducted from gross income in computing adjusted gross income." Yet the writer has been twice advised, from widely separated parts of the country, that local representatives of the Bureau of Internal Revenue are refusing to allow the latter deduction in connection with expense of attending teachers' conventions unless such attendance was *required* by the employing institutions. In neither case was there such a requirement, although each institution encouraged convention attendance by its teachers and one institution contributed a fixed sum to cover part of the expenses of any teacher who did attend. This position of the Bureau officials seems dubious on technical grounds and unsound in practical principle. Teachers are highly trained and responsible employees, properly given much discretion in mapping their courses of conduct. Many of their "duties" must be left to their good conscience and judgment, not made matters of detailed administrative command. Unless the

¹ The proviso about reimbursement is misleading under the present express provision as to reimbursed expenses. The approved method of income tax return accounting is to enter the reimbursement as gross income and offset it by the expense. Regs. 111, §29.23(a)-2; instruction pamphlet, p. 6.

Treasury is prepared to modify I.T. 3448 by adding to it the idea of institutional "requirement," the attitude of the field representatives of the Bureau should be reconsidered. Niggling hairsplitting never makes for good taxpayer relations.

There has been lively controversy as to the meaning of "away from home." The Bureau, determined not to allow deduction of commuting expenses, contends that "home" in the tax sense means something like established or principal place of business, and not what it means in colloquial usage. In addition the Bureau asserts that to be "away from home" one must remain away at least overnight. See the instruction pamphlet, p. 6. In the case of *Kenneth Waters*, 12 T.C. 414 (1949), the taxpayer proved that he managed one of the stores in a grocery chain and was required to make a 72-mile daytime round trip each Sunday to report to the manager of the chain. Taxpayer made these trips in his own car, was not reimbursed for the cost, and claimed a deduction for "traveling expenses" at the rate of 6 cents per mile. The Commissioner sought to sustain disallowance of the deduction on the strength of the "you've got to stay out all night" rule. Deciding in the taxpayer's favor, 12 of the 16 Tax Court judges joined in an opinion asserting that the foregoing rule was without statutory justification and invalid. Two judges concurred only in result, without explaining the difference of their reasoning. Two judges dissented. Despite this decision, the Bureau continues to insist that you've got to stay out all night.

Not even the dissenters in the *Waters* case denied that the taxpayer's motoring costs were business expenses. They appear to concede that if the taxpayer had itemized his deductions in order to compute gross income, he might have included these costs as an itemized deduction. But the taxpayer had elected to make a short form return without itemization in this respect, and it was the dissenters' view that the costs above described did not qualify as "expenses of travel... while away from home" which might be subtracted in computing adjusted gross income. This matter, then, is related to the convention expense problem discussed above.

The Supreme Court of the United States has held that a lawyer residing and having an office in Jackson, Mississippi, who was an

officer of a railroad with headquarters in Mobile, Alabama, might not deduct costs of travel incurred in shuttling back and forth between Jackson and Mobile. The opinion throws emphasis on the idea that these costs were not incurred in the pursuit of the business of the employer railroad. *Commissioner v. Flowers*, 326 U. S. 465 (1946). How this affects a General Counsel's Memorandum approving deduction of railroad fare expended by a teacher in traveling from his place of regular employment to a place of temporary employment in a summer school is not entirely clear. The summer school ruling is G.C.M. 10915, XI-2 C.B. 245. Compare *Ney v. United States*, 171 F. 2d 449 (8th Cir. 1948), which the Supreme Court of the United States refused to review, 336 U. S. 967 (1949). Here an Arkansas businessman accepted wartime employment with the O.P.A. which took him first to Atlanta, Georgia, and later to Washington, D. C. Originally intended to be brief, this employment ultimately extended over more than three years, and was found by the trial court to have been for an indefinite period and not merely temporary. The taxpayer continued throughout to maintain his Arkansas business connection, and his family home in Arkansas. He claimed deduction for living expenses incurred by reason of his own separate residence in Atlanta and Washington. This claim was denied, the living expenses being termed personal rather than of a business nature. The reasoning of the case is consistent with the Bureau's abnormal definition of the term "home."

The general problem of deductibility and nondeductibility under I.R.C. §23 of various kinds of expenses is further analyzed on p. 759 (paragraph with inset head *Page 3, Itemized deductions*).

Page 2, Schedule A, Income from annuities or pensions: After retirement peculiar problems arise respecting retirement pay. Sums periodically paid retired teachers in connection with their profession may be either (a) continued compensation in consideration of past services, (b) gifts, (c) purchased annuities, or (d) distributions from trust funds. Possibility (d) is not discussed.

Deferred compensation: A retiring allowance from the employing institution, toward which the retired teacher has made no contribution, is typically treated as continued compensation and taxed as ordinary income. See Regs. 111, §29.22(a)(2); G.C.M.

14593, XIV-1 C.B. 50; and 485 CCH ¶8746, dealing with retirement annuities to state or city employees.

Gift allowances: A retiring allowance or pension from a source other than the employing institution, toward the cost of which allowance or pension the retired teacher has made no contribution, may be a gift and therefore properly excluded from the teacher's gross income. The outstanding example of this kind of arrangement in the educational field is found in the retiring allowances and widows' pensions paid by the Carnegie Foundation. These payments have been ruled to be gifts or gratuities. L.O. 1040, 3 C.B. 120; and see again Regs. 111, §29.22(a)(2). The ruling first cited does not extend to payments under Andrew Carnegie's testamentary provisions.

The Carnegie Foundation has for various reasons beyond its control been unable to continue granting these allowances and pensions on the full scale originally anticipated. In consequence the Foundation's payments have been augmented from at least two sources. First, there has been a general augmentation by the Carnegie Corporation. Second, individual colleges and universities have provided for additional augmentations. The tax status of the Carnegie Corporation's augmentations is still somewhat in doubt, but the Bureau now apparently insists that the recipients render them for income tax purposes as purchased annuities. As to taxation of such annuities, see below. Individual college and university augmentations are taxable according to the nature of the respective arrangements under which they are paid.

While an employer institution may pay a teacher a retirement bonus, allowance, or pension under such circumstances that it will be deemed a gift, this situation is rarely recognized as having arisen, particularly if regular periodical payments are made. But there are exceptions. In one case a pastor, after serving for many years without increase in salary, was compelled by ill-health to retire; he was in serious financial need; his congregation spontaneously and "moved by affectionate regard...and gratitude" voted him \$2000 annual "salary or honorarium...with no pastoral authority or duty..." The Commissioner's treatment of this allowance as taxable compensation on account of past services was overthrown by the Court of Appeals, although previously sus-

tained in the Tax Court. *Schall v. Commissioner*, 174 F. 2d 893 (5th Cir. 1949). Contrast *Grace*, 6 T.C.M. 770, CCH Dec. 15,891(M), affirmed 166 F. 2d 1022 (2d Cir. 1948), which is interesting although not a retirement case—it holds taxable a lump sum “gift” to an employee at the end of 40 years’ service.

Purchased annuities: Most plans for educational retirement allowances now involve either literally or in substance the purchase of annuity contracts, the purchase price having been amassed by a combination of pay-roll deductions and employers’ contributions. Periodical payments to the beneficiaries of such contracts are taxed under a special rule (I.R.C. §22(b)(2)) which can most easily be explained in terms of a specific illustration.

Suppose a teacher is retired as of September 1, 1949, having undergone pay-roll deductions aggregating \$10,000 toward the cost of a retirement annuity, his employer having contributed for the same purpose an equal sum. The retired teacher receives in 1949 four monthly annuity installments of \$200 each. With respect to those installments he should include in gross income for the taxable year 1949 an amount equal to 3 per centum per annum of the aggregate he has contributed to the consideration for the annuity. Assuming that the employer’s contributions have not been taxable to the teacher as part of the latter’s income during his active career, this aggregate contribution is \$10,000, and the amount to be included in gross income for 1949 is \$100 (3 per centum of \$10,000 for 4 months). The remaining \$700 is treated as a nontaxable return of principal investment. If the employer’s contributions had been currently taxable to the teacher, they would be included in the basis for the 3 per centum calculation to raise it to \$20,000, so that the inclusion in gross income would become \$200 and the exclusion \$600. This seems illogical, but the statute requires it. Regs. 111, §22(b)(2)-5.

Continuing the illustration into 1950, when the retired teacher receives \$2400 in annuity payments, his inclusion in gross income for that year will be \$300 or \$600 according to the amount of his basis for the 3 per centum calculation. The process of partial exclusion is to be continued until the aggregate exclusions equal the principal underlying the annuity (\$10,000 under the first hypothesis, \$20,000 under the second). Thereafter the whole

annuity must be included in gross income. On the \$10,000 hypothesis, capital recovery will be completed during 1954; on the \$20,000 hypothesis it will be so far postponed that the retired teacher must live long to accomplish it. For another example of calculation see I.T. 3364, 1940-1 C.B. 19. Parenthetically, it is to be noted that what is called the \$20,000 hypothesis will not be applicable except in case of a teacher in a proprietary, nonexempt educational institution operating a retirement plan which fails to meet statutory requirements laid down by the I.R.C. For obvious reasons, this rare case is not discussed at length either here or on pp. 749-750 *supra* (*Retirement allowance contributions*).

Secondary beneficiaries: Wisely planned teachers' retirement schemes often provide for the needs of secondary beneficiaries, typically widows, after the death of the teachers primarily concerned. This is true, for instance, of the Carnegie system for retirement allowances and widows' pensions. It is substantially accurate to say that for purposes of federal income taxation these secondary beneficiaries step into the shoes of the primary beneficiaries and have corresponding liabilities. Regs. 111, §§29.22 (b)(2)-5 and 29.165-6; I.T. 3362, 1940-1 C.B. 18, 19; I.T. 3653, 1944 C.B. 75, 76.

Page 2, Schedule B, Income from rents and royalties: So-called "royalties" on books written or edited by teachers do not always belong in this schedule. G.C.M. 236, VI-2 C.B. 27, issued in 1927, seems to mean that if an author agrees in advance as an employee or independent contractor to write an article or book for a publisher, the latter to copyright and own the product and pay compensation to the author, the payments are compensation for personal services; but if the author first writes the article or book and then sells, leases, or rents "his intellectual product" (this may mean the manuscript, or possibly the copyright, if any) to the publisher, his return therefrom is income from property. See also *E. Phillips Oppenheim*, 31 B.T.A. 563 (1934),¹ *Rohmer v. Commissioner*, 153 F. 2d 61 (2d Cir. 1946), a case which the Supreme Court of the United States refused to review (328 U. S. 862 (1946)), and I.T. 2735, XII-2 C.B. 131. A "royalty" received under the latter type of arrangement would apparently be-

¹ "B.T.A." means the Board of Tax Appeals, ancestor of the present Tax Court.

long in Schedule B, with a "royalty" received under the former type of arrangement being properly regarded as either compensation for personal services to be returned in Item 2 or income from business or profession to be entered in Schedule C and thence reflected into Item 5. Another angle of this matter is taken up under the next heading.

Page 2, Schedule D, Gains and losses from sales or exchanges: The problem of gain or loss from sales or exchanges as related to income taxation is a matter of notorious difficulty. Its handling in connection with Form 1040 requires use of a separate one-sheet Schedule D, which has on its back a special set of instructions; see also the general instruction pamphlet, pp. 10-11.

Here the matter of income from authorship (or invention) introduces a special problem. On p. 749 *supra*, in the discussion of income from long-term projects, there is passing mention of "gain from the sale or exchange of a capital asset held for more than 6 months." A copyright, patent, or invention may be such an asset; so, apparently, may an author's manuscript. A sale or exchange of the type included within the quotation above gives rise not to ordinary income but to "long-term capital gain." When an individual makes a long-term capital gain, only 50 per centum of the gain is taken into account in computing net capital gain and net income. I.R.C. §117(b). Also, the maximum tax rate on the amount of an individual taxpayer's net long-term capital gain in excess of his net short-term capital loss (if any) is limited to 50 per centum. I.R.C. §117(c)(2). Thus a teacher who wrote the manuscript for a book, whether in ten years or one month, and after the required holding period sold all rights in the manuscript (or the copyright, if obtained) would save tax if the net proceeds were treated as long-term capital gain rather than as ordinary income. The Code provides that the term "capital assets" does not include "property held by the taxpayer primarily for sale to customers in the ordinary course of his trade or business" I.R.C. §117(a)(1). Hence a professional author or a professional inventor has little or no chance to take advantage of the capital gain provisions in this respect. The preceding comment under *Page 2, Schedule B, Income from rents and royalties* assumed that the teacher-author concerned *was* a professional in the latter

as well as the former capacity. But a teacher who writes or invents only occasionally and apart from the regular practice of his primary profession has a better chance to utilize the capital gain provisions. Most of the useful cases in this connection have to do with inventions. *Commissioner v. Wodehouse*, 337 U. S. 369 (1949), very elaborately discussing the position of the foreign author, has confused the situation and roused much technical expert criticism. As any reader can see, this angle of tax law is tricky and technical. It is no spot for any layman to be his own lawyer. If interested in it, he should consult a skilled tax practitioner.

Page 3, Itemized deductions: In this connection the instruction pamphlet at pp. 12-15 is stimulating and helpful. Nevertheless, a statement in other words of the principles underlying the use of these six boxes or schedules, and mention of a few details, may be serviceable:

With respect to losses (fourth box of the six) it must be remembered both here and in filling out Schedule D (p. 2 of Form) that for an individual a loss is not deductible unless (A) not compensated by insurance or otherwise *and* (B) suffered (1) in trade or business, *or* (2) in a transaction entered into for profit, *or* (3) from fire, storm, shipwreck, or other like casualty, or from theft. I.R.C. §23(e). For instance, loss on sale of a residence which the taxpayer has occupied as his dwelling-house up to the time of sale is not deductible although a gain on such a sale is taxable as a capital gain.

With respect to miscellaneous deductions (sixth and last box) the following analysis should be observed:

(1) As the Form 1040 instruction pamphlet says on p. 14, such persons as teachers, working on salary, may deduct the ordinary and necessary expenses they incur for the employer's benefit—of course not repeating here the deductions already properly claimed in calculating adjusted gross income (pp. 751-754 *supra*).

(2) Ordinary and necessary current expenses are deductible, although not trade or business expenses, if they are for production or collection of income, or for management, conservation, or maintenance of property held for production of income. This deduction is permitted under I.R.C. §23(a)(2), a provision made the subject

of extensive comment by Regs. 111, §29.23(a)-15, partially quoted in the *Bulletin* for December, 1943, p. 696. The Supreme Court has not yet had many opportunities to rule upon deductibility of "nontrade" or "nonbusiness" expenses, but has shown an inclination to overthrow attempts by the Treasury and the Department of Justice to split hairs unfavorably to the taxpayer. See *Bingham's Trust v. Commissioner*, 325 U. S. 365 (1945), allowing deduction by trustees of expenses incurred in fighting (unsuccessfully) a Treasury claim for income tax, and of other expenses incurred in connection with problems of distributing the trust fund.

(3) As already indicated, personal, living, and family expenses are not generally deductible. There is a very specialized exception for unusual medical expenses. See I.R.C. §23(x).

(4) Expenditures properly describable as capital investments are not directly or immediately deductible, being recovered only by allowances for depreciation or exhaustion spread over the useful life of the assets in which the investments are made.

General statement as to professional expenses: Regs. 111, §29.23 (a)-5, briefly cover professional expenses. Of those enumerated as deductible, the ones most likely to affect salaried teachers, aside from those discussed above under *Adjusted gross income*, are the cost of supplies used in the practice of their profession, dues to professional societies and subscriptions to professional journals, hire of office assistants, and current expenditures for books and professional equipment of which the useful life is not more than one year. I.T. 3448, 1941-1 C.B. 206, ends thus:

The cost of technical books required by and purchased by teachers specifically for use in connection with their professional work is a capital expenditure which may be extinguished through annual deductions for depreciation.

This obviously refers to books usable for more than one year.

Costs of study: In many educational systems teachers are expected to work for advanced degrees or increase their capability by attending courses. In some systems such study is prerequisite to promotion or increase in pay. May a teacher deduct the expense of study undertaken to advance his education, where no requirement or increment is involved? The Bureau has consistently refused to allow such deduction, following an early ruling

respecting cost of attendance at summer school, O.D. 892, 4 C.B. 209. The text of the ruling is brief, indicating no requirement that the taxpayer take summer school work. Denial of the deduction is on the ground that the expenses were "in the nature of personal expenses. . . ." There is also a Bureau ruling that the cost of professional postgraduate courses is not deductible. O.D. 984, 5 C.B. 171. Perhaps more emphatically, expense of preparatory work to qualify for a profession is nondeductible. *Bowles*, 1 B.T.A. 584 (1925); *Driscoll*, 4 B.T.A. 1008 (1926); cf. *Lewis*, 8 T.C. 770 (1947), affirmed 164 F. 2d 885 (2d Cir. 1947), where a father was not allowed to deduct the cost of educating his son to participate in the father's professional work. Regs. 111, §29.23 (a)-15(b), third paragraph, denies deductibility of bar examination fees and in general expenses of seeking employment; but there is some confusion here, as fees paid to secure employment were ruled deductible in O.D. 579, 3 C.B. 130.

When an educational employer, although not requiring a teacher to pursue any course of advanced study, does hold out promise of advancement in rank and compensation if, for instance, a doctorate is attained, the prospect of a favorable ruling as to deduction of the expense is still not too bright. It can be reasoned that in view of established academic practice this is an ordinary and necessary expense "for the production . . . of income." This quotation is from I.R.C. §23(a)(2). But the cases in which deductions have been denied for the cost of nursemaid assistance to working wives are discouraging. *Smith*, 40 B.T.A. 1038 (1939), affirmed 113 F. 2d 114 (2d Cir. 1940), and *O'Connor*, 6 T.C. 323 (1946).

The aspect of this deduction question seems to change when an educational employer makes mandatory the pursuit of further study by its teachers. The teacher here must do the work and shoulder its cost in order to retain his position. The cost ceases to be a personal expense, under the logic applied in the case of a stunt actor who had to keep in superior physical condition to put on his act successfully, and who was allowed to deduct the conditioning costs. *Hutchison*, 13 B.T.A. 1187, 1190 (1928). It has been ruled that when a teacher receives sabbatical leave with continuing compensation on condition that he must travel for educational purposes during the period of leave, his expenses in-

curred on such travel are deductible. I.T. 3380, 1940-1 C.B. 29. Under the code as it now stands, the deduction, if allowable at all, may pertain to computation of adjusted gross income. See p. 752 *supra*.

As to the matters just discussed, *Nora P. Hill*, 13 T.C.—#41 (1949), is an interesting decision, if scarcely an encouragement. The taxpayer, a Virginia public school teacher, sought to deduct as an ordinary and necessary business expense for 1945 the cost of attending summer courses in Columbia University. Her teaching certificate, the highest granted by the State Board of Education, came up for renewal in 1945. Virginia law required for renewal of teaching certificates either the taking of professional or academic courses for credit or the passing of examinations on prescribed reading. The Tax Court denied the claim of deduction. Part of its reasoning was that because the Virginia legal requirements might be satisfied by pursuing either of the two alternatives, the showing was insufficient that what the taxpayer had done was the ordinary method of satisfaction. Another part of the reasoning was that the taxpayer had not explicitly shown she was employed to continue as a teacher at the time she took the summer school courses. Hence, said the Court, it might be inferred that the taxpayer was seeking to qualify for reemployment as distinguished from merely maintaining an employed status. While these views seem hypercritical and are an invitation to the same teacher or another teacher to try again with more carefully detailed proof, the tone of the opinion hints at strong distaste for this sort of deduction.

Research expenses: A teacher's professional expenses for research are not personal expenses even though he receives no specific compensation for the work, but such expenses, particularly heavy costs of publication, may be regarded as capital expenditures. See G.C.M. 11654, XII-1 C.B. 250. One Tax Court case discloses an unusual situation. The taxpayer held a university post without salary, and collected and published material of scholarly value. He had no immediate prospect of financial profit but did hope to build a reputation for first-class scholarship, thus making himself eligible for highly remunerative professional appointment. Deduction of his research expense was denied as being "in essence the cost of the capital structure from which his future income is to be

derived." *Osborn*, 3 T.C. 603 (1944). The opinion does not explain any accounting method by which something in the nature of a depreciation allowance might be had on account of these expenditures, and indeed suggests that they are unrecoverable so far as income tax goes. The situation is likened to those mentioned above which involve preparation for the exercise of a profession. Does this bear upon the problem of the *Hill* case, discussed above?

Equipment: The teacher's professional equipment presents points of both ordinary and necessary current expense and capital expenditure or investment. Annual dues or fees for membership in professional organizations may be considered the price of a kind of intangible equipment. They are deductible as ordinary and necessary expenses. O.D. 450, 2 C.B. 105; I.T. 3448, 1941-1 C.B. 206. Payment for life membership in such an organization might well be treated as a capital investment involving a puzzling depreciation or exhaustion problem. Subscriptions to professional journals are typical proper deductions; so is the cost of books with a short useful life; so, too, are expenses for operation and repair of an automobile used in the practice of a teacher's profession. As to the automobile, proration or allocation of expense should be made if the car is used partly for personal, partly for professional, purposes. See *Griffiths*, 25 B.T.A. 1292, 1302, 1316 (1932), affirmed by 70 F. 2d 946 (7th Cir. 1934), but only on other points; and 491 CCH ¶¶144 P .058 and .0585. Obviously the purchase of an automobile, to be used exclusively or partly for professional purposes, would be treated on the basis of capital expenditure; so also in the case of books, furniture, or other equipment for teaching or research, if usable for more than a year.

Professional assistance: A teacher regularly employed in a public school who paid a substitute on a per diem basis might deduct the amount thus paid. I.T. 2973, XV-1 C.B. 89. The teaching profession is not litigious, but a teacher may have to seek legal assistance in making out his income tax return. Apparently this expense is now deductible under liberal construction of the statutory clause relating to ordinary and necessary expenses for production or collection of income, or management, conservation, or maintenance of property held for the production of income. The Regulations are tantalizingly worded: "Expenses paid or incurred

by an individual in the determination of liability for taxes upon his income are deductible." Regs. 111, §29.23(a)-15(b), eighth paragraph. A special Bureau ruling by letter interpreted the quoted words as permitting deduction of "fees paid by an individual taxpayer for the preparation of his individual tax return involving salary income only. . . ." 464 CCH ¶6215. The case for deduction is of course clearer under I.R.C. §23(a)(2) where property income is involved.

Other Sources of Information

This paper is necessarily devoted to a condensed statement of "spot" information. It refers to a number of primary sources, including legislation, regulations, rulings, and judicial decisions. A highly authoritative secondary source, far more comprehensive than the present paper, is the official government booklet of 138 pages entitled "Your Federal Income Tax," to which the opening passage of the instruction pamphlet accompanying Form 1040 refers. "Your Federal Income Tax" as put on sale December 1, 1949, is an enlarged and improved version of the like-named booklet published a year previously. More than 345,000 copies of the earlier edition were distributed by public sale and otherwise. The new edition is sold by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., at 25 cents per copy.

Commercial publishers also issue valuable compilations and commentaries. Passing by the large, costly looseleaf services of Commerce Clearing House and Prentice-Hall, both excellent publishers, the publications noted in the next two paragraphs may be taken as examples. In both paragraphs the parenthetical percentage figures show educational discounts, allowable if the order is billed to and paid by the school or college bookstore:

Commerce Clearing House issues "Federal Taxation—Current Law and Practice" (formerly "Code and Regulations—Federal Taxes—Law Students Edition"), one volume, looseleaf ring binder, school list price \$6.25 (20%); this book carries reports on new developments during the school year. Another Commerce Clearing House publication is "Internal Revenue Code," income, estate, and gift tax provisions as amended to October 14, 1949, paper

bound, 512 pages, \$3 (33 $\frac{1}{3}$ %). "Income Tax Regulations 111," as amended to October 5, 1949, paper bound, 598 pages, \$3 (33 $\frac{1}{3}$ %), complements the preceding volume. CCH also issues "1950 Filled-In Tax Return Forms for 1949 Income," paper bound, 80 pages, \$3 (33 $\frac{1}{3}$ %), and "1950 U. S. Master Tax Guide," paper bound, 384 pages, \$3 (33 $\frac{1}{3}$ %).

Prentice-Hall publishes a booklet explaining each major Revenue Act. The most recent is "The Revenue Act of 1948—With Explanation" at \$1.25 (20%). Available to tax classes at no cost are the 70-page "Federal Tax Practice" and the 64-page "Research in Federal Taxation." The same publisher also issues an 800-page "Federal Tax Handbook" at \$4.00 (20%); and a 600-page "Treasury Department Income Tax Regulations" at \$4.00 (20%). Also, from the long list of looseleaf services: "Internal Revenue Code," annual subscription \$8.50 (20%); "Federal Regulations on Income and Excess Profits Taxes," annual subscription \$12.50 (20%); "Code and Regulations on Income and Excess Profits Taxes," annual subscription \$19.50 (20%); and "Students Tax Law Service," annual subscription \$19.50 (20%).

Caveat

The present paper is not published for the purpose of rendering legal, accounting, or other professional service. If any reader requires legal advice or other expert assistance in respect of specific tax matters, the services of a competent professional person, to whom the exact facts are presented, should be sought.

Harvard Law School

J. M. MAGUIRE

Censured Administrations

Investigations by the American Association of University Professors of the administrations of the several institutions listed below show that they are not observing the generally recognized principles of academic freedom and tenure, endorsed by this Association, the Association of American Colleges, the Association of American Law Schools, the American Library Association (with adaptations for librarians), the American Political Science Association, and the American Association of Teachers Colleges.¹

Placing the name of an institution on this list does not mean that censure is visited either upon the whole of the institution or upon the faculty but specifically upon its present administration. The term "administration" includes the administrative officers and the governing board of the institution. This censure does not affect the eligibility of nonmembers for membership in the Association, nor does it affect the individual rights of our members at the institution in question, nor do members of the Association who accept positions on the faculty of an institution whose administration is thus censured forfeit their membership. This list is published for the sole purpose of informing our members, the profession at large, and the public that unsatisfactory conditions of academic freedom and tenure have been found to prevail at these institutions. Names are placed on or removed from this censured list by vote of the Association's Annual Meeting.

The censured administrations together with the date of censuring are listed below. Reports of investigations were published as indicated by the *Bulletin* citations.

West Chester State Teachers College	December, 1939
West Chester, Pennsylvania (February, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 44-72)	
Adelphi College, Garden City, New York	December, 1941
(October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 494-517)	
University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri	December, 1941
(October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 478-493)	
State Teachers College, ² Murfreesboro, Tennessee	May, 1943
(December, 1942 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 662-677)	
Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina	May, 1943
(April, 1942 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 173-176)	
University of Missouri, Columbia and Rolla, Missouri	June, 1946
(Summer, 1945 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 278-315)	
University of Texas, Austin, Texas	June, 1946
(Winter, 1944 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 627-634; Autumn, 1945 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 462-465; Summer, 1946 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 374-385)	

¹ Reorganized in 1948 as the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

² Now Middle Tennessee State College.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION
of
UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS

1101 Connecticut Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

What It Is - - What It Does

The American Association of University Professors is the professional organization for college and university teachers and investigators in the United States and its territories, in Canada, and in American controlled institutions of higher education abroad. For the academic profession its rôle and functions are analogous to those of the American Bar Association for the legal profession and the American Medical Association for the profession of medicine. It grew out of a conference of representatives of universities called by the Faculty of The Johns Hopkins University in 1913. The organizational meeting was held in New York City on January 1 and 2, 1915. The nature and purposes of the Association are indicated in the following statement of objectives formulated on that occasion:

To bring about more effective cooperation among the members of the profession in the discharge of their special responsibilities as custodians of the interests of higher education and research in America; to promote a more general and methodical discussion of problems relating to education in institutions of higher learning; to create means for the authoritative expression of the public opinion of the body of college and university teachers; to make collective action possible, and in general to maintain and advance the ideals and standards of the profession.

Throughout its history the Association has sought to develop and strengthen the professional concept among college and university teachers to the end that these objectives might be attained. Through its central office, its several committees, and its Council,

the Association serves as a clearing house for the consideration of policies and problems of the profession.

Committees

The Association maintains committees on the following professional subjects: Academic Freedom and Tenure, Author-Publisher Contracts, Cooperation with Latin-American Universities, Economic Welfare of the Profession, Educational Standards, Encouragement of University Research, International Relations, Library Service, Pensions and Insurance, Place and Function of Faculties in College and University Government, Preparation and Qualification of Teachers, Professional Ethics, Relation of Junior Colleges to Higher Education.

The Association also maintains organizational committees on: Admission of Members, Financial Resources of the Association, Organization and Conduct of Chapters, Organization and Policy.

Academic Freedom and Tenure

Independently and in cooperation with other educational organizations, the Association has sought the formulation, the recognition, and the observance of principles, practices, and procedures conducive to freedom of thought, inquiry, and expression. The most recent enunciation of these principles and procedures is set forth in the 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure. These principles have the endorsement of the Association of American Colleges, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the Association of American Law Schools, the American Political Science Association, the American Library Association (an adaptation for librarians), and the American Association of University Professors.

Through its Committee on Academic Freedom and Tenure, the Association has conducted many investigations of alleged violations of the principles of academic freedom and tenure and in certain instances has published reports in the *Bulletin*. There is abundant evidence that this work of the Association has been effective in stabilizing tenure in our institutions of higher education, thereby furthering academic freedom which cannot exist without the economic security provided by continuity of tenure.

Annual Meeting

The Constitution of the Association provides for an Annual Meeting of the membership. Prior to 1947 the Annual Meeting of the Association was held in connection with a meeting or meetings of subject matter organizations, *viz.*; American Association for the Advancement of Science, American Economic Association, American Historical Association, American Political Science Association, Association of American Law Schools, and the Modern Language Association of America. Beginning with 1947 the Annual Meeting has been an independent meeting and has been held in late February in a different geographical area each year—in 1947, Boston, Massachusetts; in 1948, St. Louis, Missouri; in 1949, Washington, D. C.

Sessions of the Annual Meeting usually extend through two days, preceded and followed by sessions of the Association's Council. The programs consist of addresses, reports of committees, symposia, and forum discussions on subjects of concern to all college and university teachers and to all others who are interested in higher education.

Bulletin

The Association publishes a quarterly journal, the *Bulletin*, which is sent to all members. The *Bulletin* is an educational journal, presenting articles and reports of concern to all who are interested in, or are a part of, our institutions of higher education. It has an increasing nonmembership circulation, particularly among college and university administrative officers and trustees, and is contributing greatly toward a wider recognition of the "professional" concept of teaching and research and the "associates" concept of the Faculty-Administration relationship. The subscription price of the *Bulletin* for nonmembers in the United States is \$3.00 a year. Foreign subscriptions for nonmembers, including those in Canada, are \$3.50 a year. Single copies are available for purchase. In all cases the postage is prepaid.

Studies

The Association has from time to time formulated policies and conducted special studies, as indicated in the following citations:

Academic Freedom and Tenure.

Declaration of Principles, *Bulletin*, December, 1915 (reprinted, Spring, 1948).

Statements of Principles: 1925 Conference Statement and 1940 Statement, *Bulletin*, Spring, 1949.

Annual Reports. Current Spring *Bulletin*.

Conditions of Tenure. *Bulletin*, April, 1932.

Freedom of Teaching in Science. *Bulletin*, February, 1925; December, 1927.

College and University Teaching. *Bulletin*, May, 1933, 122 pp.

Depression, Recovery and Higher Education. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1937, 543 pp.

Employment of Graduate Student Assistants and its Effect on Quality of Undergraduate Instruction and on Graduate Work of the Student Assistants. *Bulletin*, February-March, 1926.

Faculty Salaries and Salary Schedules in Selected Institutions. *Bulletin*, Winter, 1948.

Federal Income Tax Returns. Published annually in Winter *Bulletin*.

Honorary Degrees and the Basis for Conferring Them. *Bulletin*, December, 1917.

Methods of Appointment and Promotion. *Bulletin*, March, 1929.

Methods of Increasing the Intellectual Interest and Raising the Intellectual Standards of Undergraduates. *Bulletin*, February, October, 1922; October, December, 1923; May, October, November, December, 1924; November, 1925; February-March, April, October, 1926.

Migration and Interchange of Graduate Students. *Bulletin*, October, 1921.

Normal Amount of Teaching and Research for Professors. *Bulletin*, March, 1930; March, 1931.

Place and Function of Faculties in College and University Government. *Bulletin*, March, 1920 (reprinted in May, 1924); March, 1936; March, 1937; February, 1938; April, 1939; April, 1940; April, 1941; Spring, 1948.

Relation of Vocational to General Higher Education. *Bulletin*, November, 1925.

Required Courses in Education. *Bulletin*, May, 1930; March, 1933.

Requirements for the Master of Arts Degree. *Bulletin*, February, 1931; March, 1932.

Requirements for the Ph.D. Degree. *Bulletin*, January-February, 1919.

Status of Women in College and University Faculties. *Bulletin*, October, 1921; November, 1924.

Summer School Organization. *Bulletin*, March, 1919.

Systems for Sabbatical Years. *Bulletin*, March, 1931.

Chapters

Whenever the Active Members at any eligible institution number seven or more, they may organize a chapter. Upon the election of a seventh Active Member, one or more members may call an organizational meeting.

The principal functions of chapters are: (1) to consider questions of concern to college and university teachers; (2) to consider current local questions of educational policy or method; (3) to act as an initiating agency for faculty action; (4) to take action upon specific matters of Association business submitted to the chapters by the Association's Council or its central office; (5) to cooperate with the Council and central office of the Association in dealing with problems of the profession.

The standing Committee on Organization and Conduct of Chapters, with membership on a geographical basis from sixteen regions, maintains relations with chapter officers and arranges for occasional regional meetings in which a number of chapters may participate.

At present the Association has 384 organized Chapters.

Growth

The Association has had a gradual and encouraging growth. Beginning with 1362 charter members, the membership has increased as follows:

January 1, 1920.....	2,388
January 1, 1925.....	5,591
January 1, 1930.....	7,986
January 1, 1935.....	11,500
January 1, 1940.....	15,330
January 1, 1945.....	17,970
January 1, 1947.....	21,238
January 1, 1949.....	33,638

The membership is distributed in 792 accredited colleges and universities and represents approximately one-third of all eligible college and university teachers.

MEMBERSHIP

CLASSES AND CONDITIONS—NOMINATIONS AND ELECTIONS

Membership in the American Association of University Professors is open to all college and university teachers from the faculties of eligible institutions and to graduate students and graduate assistants. The list of eligible institutions is based primarily on the accredited lists of the established accrediting agencies subject to modification by action of the Association. Election to membership in the Association is by the Committee on Admission of Members upon nomination by one Active Member. Election takes place thirty days after the name of the nominee has been published in the *Bulletin*. The membership year in the Association is the calendar year (January 1 through December 31). The membership of nominees whose nominations are received before July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the current year. The membership of nominees whose nominations are received after July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the following year unless the nominee requests that his membership become effective as of January 1 of the current year.

The classes and conditions of membership are as follows:

Active. A person is eligible for election to Active membership if he holds a position of teaching or research with the rank of instructor or higher in an institution on the Association's eligible list, provided his work consists of at least half-time teaching or research. Annual dues are \$4.00, including subscription to the *Bulletin*.

Junior. Junior membership is open to persons who are, or within the past five years have been, graduate students in eligible institutions and who are not eligible for Active membership. Junior Members are transferred to Active membership as soon as they become eligible. Annual dues are \$3.00, including subscription to the *Bulletin*.

Associate. Associate membership is not an elective membership. Active and Junior Members whose work becomes primarily administrative are transferred to Associate membership. Annual dues are \$3.00, including subscription to the *Bulletin*.

Emeritus. Any member retiring for age from a position in teaching or research may be transferred to Emeritus membership. Emeritus Members are exempt from dues. They may continue to receive the *Bulletin* at a special rate of \$1.00 a year.

Continuing Eligibility. Change of occupation or transfer to an institution not on the Association's eligible list does not affect eligibility for continuance of membership.

Interruption or Termination of Membership. Interruption or termination of membership requires notification to the Association's Washington office. In the absence of such notice, membership continues with receipt of the *Bulletin* for one calendar year, during which time there is an obligation to pay dues.

Nominations for Membership

The following 1566 nominations for Active membership and 28 nominations for Junior membership are published as provided in the Constitution of the Association. Protests of nominations may be addressed to the General Secretary of the Association who will, in turn, transmit them for the consideration of the Committee on Admission of Members. The Council of the Association has ruled that the primary purpose of this provision for protests is to bring to the attention of the Committee on Admission of Members questions concerning the technical eligibility of nominees for membership as provided in the Constitution of the Association. To be considered, such protests must be filed with the General Secretary within thirty days after this publication.

Active

Adams State College, Richard H. Bachman, Myrtle M. Imhoff, Witold Jankowski, Winfred H. Mott, Alice K. Wright; Adelphi College, Geneva L. McCaw, Beatrice S. Magdoff, Emmanuel G. Mesthene; University of Akron, Bernard S. Logan, Dorothy M. Marty, John J. Pottinger, Helen S. Thackaberry; Alabama College, Paul C. Bailey, Charles L. Gormley, Amy K. James, James T. Jones, Robert Payne; Alabama Polytechnic Institute, William B. Bunger, H. Nicholas Hamner, Harold E. Klontz, Justin Long, Hugh D. Reagan, Flora Sarinopoulos, Paul F. Ziegler; Alabama State Teachers College

(Florence), Gordon W. Clarke; **University of Alabama**, Rossiter Bellinger, Irma Berkowitz, Don R. Birrell, Joseph S. Bolt, Carolyn Brown, Peter E. Brownback, Evalena H. Caton, Eva Clapp, Edward H. Cleino, Robert T. Daland, Bessie L. Davey, Mildred B. Davis, Escal F. Duke, James C. Eaves, Frederick S. Eiland, Frank L. Engle, Charles D. Farris, Angelo J. Granata, Mary C. Griffin, William K. Hagood, Charles W. Hart, Orvil R. Hause, Charles P. Hayes, John S. Henderson, Frederick B. Hyde, Joseph P. Jankowski, Suzanne Johnstone, Mortimer H. Jordan, Gurney Kennedy, Forrest W. Lacey, Bart Landheer, Joseph E. Lane, Jr., George A. Le Maistre, M. Milo McElhiney, Jonathon C. McLendon, John P. Maggard, Jr., Hilary H. Milton, Henry N. Mims, Grady H. Nunn, Eleanor Oliver, John S. Pancake, Doris M. Plagge, Ellie Sims, Don C. Smith, Olive Thomas, Mary K. Tims, Robert H. Van Voorhis, Donald S. Vaughan, Ralph R. Williams, Martin J. Wiman, Henry B. Woodward, Jr.; **Albion College**, Otis Aggertt, Jr., Paul H. Carnell, Clara Dixon, Pauline Rodgers, Marilyn W. Scott, Eleanor Senn, Anthony Taffs, Donald D. Tewes; **Alfred University**, Ralph W. Beals, Jr., Charles A. Domenicali, Earl L. Jandron, Joseph M. Koch, William L. Pulos, Robert C. Stapleton; **Allegheny College**, John T. Bair, Donna L. Daye, Benjamin F. Hammet, Lawrence Herman, Alfred Kern, Howard H. Martin, Alexander R. Mulligan, W. S. Wright North, Agnes E. Painter, H. Riley Patton, William W. Snyder, Tyler Thompson; **American International College**, Paul E. Thisell; **Amherst College**, Frank L. Gillespie; **Appalachian State Teachers College**, J. T. C. Wright; **Arizona State College (Tempe)**, Margery M. Anderson, Charles A. Barnes, Kelly H. Eldredge, Joyce Gesas, Lew Girdler, John O. Grimes, Ernest J. Hopkins, Mariam Joy, Lois E. Kelso, Theodore G. Klose, William F. Podlich, Jr., William S. Rawls, Genevieve R. Sanscrainte, Louis Taylor, John E. Todd, Richard K. Welsh; **University of Arizona**, Keith B. Aubrey, William H. Berryhill, Willis R. Brewer, Winston Harris, Carl F. Keppler, Helen M. Lasek, Irving O. Linger, John W. Stull; **Arkansas State College**, Frank W. Plunkett; **Army Language School**, Alfred K. Ho.

Baldwin-Wallace College, John Armstrong, Norman H. Gross, Glenn W. Peterjohn, Clinton A. Phillips, Orie J. VandeVisse; **Ball State Teachers College**, Richard H. Caldemeyer, J. Leonard Davis, Joseph H. Frank, Helen H. Sornson, William H. Stevenson, Lewis W. Yoho; **Barat College**, J. M. Barnothy, Madeleine Forro-Barnothy, Ann H. Grill; **Bates College**, John K. McCreary; **Baylor University**, Bryce C. Brown, George W. Clarke, Joyce E. Copeland, Leonard A. Duce, Christine Fall, Sherwood Githens, Jr., Homer H. Hamner, Louise B. Helton, William B. Helton, Mutsu Nagai, Anne M. Nicholson, Parke E. Ressler, Thomas E. Rogers, Herbert D. Schwetman, Andrea Sendón, Daniel Sternberg, Myrtie R. Taylor, Floreid Wills, Edgar O. Wood; **Beloit College**, Harvey J. Badesch, Harry R. Davis; **Berea College**, Waring C. Hopkins, Helen J. Irish, Patricia Rosenkranz, Dorothy Tredennick; **Bluefield State College**, Luetta L. Spencer; **Boston College**, Vincent F. Dunfey, Frederick J. Zappala; **Boston University**, Isaac Asimov; **Bowdoin College**, Donald B. Sands, Albert R. Thayer; **Bowling Green State University**, Floris

Arnold, J. Richard Box, J. Russell Coffey, John E. Denn, Mary C. Dittman, Betty L. Drawbaugh, Marcus A. Hanna, Oldrich Jicha, Donald S. Longworth, Dale R. McOmber, Dorothy Mullholland, John F. Oglevee, C. Edward Schumacher, John E. Wenrick, Lillian Wilson; **Brooklyn College**, Ramiro Arratia, Anna K. Banks, Juliette Carnus, Lois S. Gaudin, Charles H. Hession, Eleanor J. Justman, Joseph Justman, Jennie P. Kormes, Hyman Kublin, Ruth R. Meyer, Theodore A. Rosequist, Ann D. Salomon, John Withall, Carl L. Withner, Jr.; **Brown University**, Roderick M. Chisholm; **Bryn Mawr College**, Felix Gilbert, Agnes K. Michels, Florence Peterson; **Bucknell University**, L. Elbert Wethington; **University of Buffalo**, Elda O. Baumann, Mary Cumpson, Bernard R. Duclos, Charles R. Fall, Colin I. Park, Marc M. Penther, Katherine F. Thorn, Stephen S. Wagner.

California State Polytechnic College, M. Eugene Smith; **University of California**, Anna H. Gayton, John L. Kelley, T. J. Kent, Jr.; **Carthage College**, Laura R. Baker, Elsie C. Grote, Kenneth L. Hamm, Jonathan A. Hoover, Irene Liebig, Edwin H. Matthaides, Martin C. Shoemaker, Eileen M. Watt; **Case Institute of Technology**, George W. Blum, Martin J. Klein; **Catawba College**, Richard H. Zimmermann; **Catholic University of America**, Henry J. Browne, Joseph A. Shea; **Centenary College of Louisiana**, Nolan L. Ashburn, Edgar E. Burks, Darwin D. Davies, Alice N. Milner, Richard K. Spears, Jr.; **Chicago City Junior College (Wilson Branch)**, M. Estelle Angier, Florence B. Caird, E. Briggs Caldwell, Sara Carruth, Margaret L. Cornell, Earl W. Davidson, Robert J. Deal, Fredrik Feltham, Maxine Gordon, Herbert C. Kalk, Alice R. Merritt, Estelle V. Palonis, George Steinbrecher, Morris Tish, Lowell C. Warner; **Chicago City Junior College (Wright Branch)**, Harriet L. Schuman; **University of Cincinnati**, Howard E. Everson, Alvin I. Kosak, Joseph W. Sausville, George D. Smith; **The City College**, Morris I. Chernofsky, Marvin M. Feuers, Morton H. Fried, Jules Joskow, Scotia B. Knowff, Henry M. Magid, William B. Mitchell; **Clark University**, Eugene J. Kelley; **Coe College**, George P. Clark, Marion R. Clausen, Don Fehrenbacher, Karl E. Goelner, George Layton, Edwin T. Settle, Wayne K. Wright; **Colby College**, Clifford J. Berschneider, George H. Stanley, Jr., Gilbert W. Tuck; **Colgate University**, Harry Behler, Daniel E. Griffiths, Arthur F. Hobday, Harold H. Lane, Hugh F. Loveland, William A. Martin, Leonard A. Ostlund, Donald L. Taylor; **Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College**, Carroll H. Miller, Lyle N. Slo- necker; **Colorado College**, Arthur Taitt; **Western State College of Colorado**, Mina Burney, B. Warren Hicks; **Columbia University**, Concetta C. Bellini, Paul O. Kristeller, Leon S. Roudiez; **Cooper Union**, Melvin B. Buchbinder, Andrew R. Chi, David Feldman, Edward M. Griswold, William P. Heising, Howard E. Lustig, Charles H. Malone, James Nickerson, Esmond Shaw, Milton Stecher, Frank H. Tallman, A. Aaron Yalow; **Cornell College**, Marlin L. Merrill, Margaret J. Williams; **Cornell University**, Henry R. Hesse, Walter Mulé, John N. Thurber.

Dakota Wesleyan University, Glen Bachman, Agnes Hyde, Charlotte Ottis, Kenneth Ottis; **Delaware State College**, Elson K. Williams; **University of**

Delaware, Robert J. Bacon, Harold W. Chase, Walter A. Connell, Leo J. Cotnoir, Jr., Earl P. Hanson, Chester W. Hitz, Eleanor Mason, Anne M. Murphy, Thomas B. Pegg, Tom D. Runnels, Milton Valentine, George G. Windell, Daniel W. Wood, Clinton W. Woodmansee; **Denison University**, John F. Duffy, Jr., Leland C. Lehman, Parker Lichtenstein; **University of Denver**, Robert M. Buckmaster, J. William Burke, Sam Butler, Lucille Delaney, John A. Mason, Milton M. Miller, Harry R. Moore, Walter A. Nagle, Arlie E. Paige, Edwin H. Park, Albert H. Rosenthal, Howard W. Saisslin, Russell Sickelbower, Ruth M. Underhill, Waldo Williamson; **De Paul University**, Walter Blinstrub, George F. Brennan, Robert L. Corcoran, John W. Curran, William R. Pasterczyk, Lawrence W. Ryan, Robert P. Zelinski, Joseph S. Ziomek; **DePauw University**, Betty Barbee, Martha Cornick, Edward L. Galligan, Cassel Grubb, Lawrence J. McCreary, Russell W. Maatman, H. David Maloney, Richard T. Oldham, John S. Stuckey, Arthur D. Talkington; **Dickinson College**, Paul A. Corcoran, Charles F. Kellogg, J. Clair McCullough; **Drake University**, Delbert D. Arnold, Frank H. Biglow, Russell E. Brillhart, Hal D. Chambers, Lewis E. Davids, Carmen C. Dixon, Arnold L. Frizzle, William D. Houlette, Alice V. Myers, Riley H. Pittman, Alexander J. Zawacki; **Drury College**, Laurena C. Beadle, Louise Covington, Norman Dressel, Frederick I. Tietze; **Duke University**, Keith S. Grimson, Lawrence F. Mansfield, Thomas E. Rentz, Eliot H. Rodnick, Howard Runkel, Charles K. Sibley; **Duquesne University**, John J. Burns, James H. Butler, Michael Danko, Jr., Robert Eck, John M. Flatley, Vito A. Grieco, Hugh F. Harnsberger, Beatriz López, James F. Maloney, Francis L. Milton, Joseph R. Morice, Norman W. Mulgrave, Dennis E. Mulvihill, Joseph H. Ridge, William K. Schusler, Robert S. Weidman, George B. Welsh, Raymond J. Worley, Frank J. Wright.

Earlham College, Leonard C. Holvik, James A. Martindale; **Elmhurst College**, Flora M. Bieder, William J. Halfter, Susan Hauber, William Kasstrinos; **Emory University**, Leslie W. Dunbar, Hubert P. Morehead, Ralph Purcell; **Eureka College**, Robert C. Pugh; **Everett Junior College**, Cora L. Smith.

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Garrett Biblical Institute, Murray H. Leiffer; **Georgetown University**, John

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Hamilton College, Robert M. Browning, Asa E. McKinney; **Haverford College**, John P. Roche; **University of Hawaii**, James W. Griffin; **Hillyer College**, Frank W. Barber, Harry L. Beach, James S. Bennett, Philip H. Clarke, Edward Duzak, Marion A. FitzGerald, Philip A. Goold, George M. McManmon, Luke A. Rich, George Ryan, Alice L. Smith; **Hofstra College**, Herman D. Goldberg, Anne M. Hanson, William K. Kaiser, Wilmot L. Marshall, Ralph R. Reuter, Felix F. Strauss, Harold E. Yaker; **Hood College**, Earle B. Blakeslee, Helen Chambers, Bernice J. Gross, Jack W. Henry, Jr., Sara E. Hess, Andrew G. Meyer, Evelyn L. Mudge; **Howard University**, Arturo E. Alers, Walter M. Booker, Margaret J. Butcher, Virginia W. Callahan, William W. S. Claytor, A. Mercer Daniel, Emmett E. Dorsey, G. Franklin Edwards, Lloyd N. Ferguson, Ira L. Gibbons, John H. Herz, Alice J. Houston, George M. Johnson, Sam Levin, Harold O. Lewis, Inabel B. Lindsay, Tan C. Lu, Gertrude B. Rivers, Lydia J. Rogers, Eurette F. Terrence, Harry J. Walker, Maria Wilhelm, Lorraine A. Williams, M. Wharton Young; **Humboldt State College**, Roy C. Anderson, Homer L. Arnold, Leonard M. Christensen, Sarah R. Cornelius, Helen A. Everett, R. Clarence Flye, Joseph M. Forbes, Albert D. Graves, Maurice Hicklin, William H. Hickman, Adella Johnson, Don W. Karshner, Hermie Kraeger, W. M. Lanphere, Roscoe E. Peithman, Imogene B. Platt, Bruce J. Roberts, Stanley S. Spaid, John H. Van Duzer, Reginald L. White, Thurston Womack; **Hunter College**, Carl Hammer, Vera Koehring, Bernard Lander.

North Idaho Junior College, Loretta Dunnigan, H. Frank Evans, Preston E. Onstad; **Northern Idaho College of Education**, Dorothy S. Chandler, Dale C. Michael; **Eastern Illinois State College**, Pauline DeHass, Barbara L. Jones; **Western Illinois State College**, Dorothea Blyler; **Illinois State Normal University**, Theodore B. Almy, Florence B. Benell, Allie W. Billingsley, John T. Carey, George Conrad, Magdalen Eichert, Raymond W. Esworthy, Harlan H. Farnsworth, Perry R. Hackett, John W. Hancock, Leland E. Hess, Charlotte Y. Ives, Blossom Johnson, Margaret Jorgensen, Lowell J. Kuntz, Rosemary McGee, Leroy E. Mecay, Ralph A. Micken, Henri R. Percy, Clarence W. Sorensen, Irwin Spector, Arden Vance, J. Loreena Webb, James E. Wheeler; **Southern Illinois University**, Martin J. Arvin, Rosalie Brown, Margaretta A. Carey, Zella Cundall, Lura E. Evans, Benjamin C. Fehrman, Carolyn Gassan, Fred K. Lingle, William H. Lucke, Willis E. Malone, John F. Plummer, Jr., Carl Pride, Raymond S. Rainbow, Jr., Robert S. Resnick, Zita H. Spradling, Jean Vaupel, Emma M. Welch, Charles B. Willard, Don Wille, Harvey S.

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John B. Stetson University, Sara S. Jernigan; **John Carroll University**, John W. Alberstadt, George B. Biglow, Robert Corrigan, Joseph T. Cotter, Frank J. Devlin, John F. Gibbons, Joseph L. Hunter, Dougald B. MacEachen, Francis J. McGurr, Vincent McNamara, Walter S. Nosal, William Scharf, J. William Vogt; **Johns Hopkins University**, Hans W. Gatzke, Curry W. Gilmore, John P. Hervey, Evelyn Howard, Ernest F. Penrose, James E. Russell, M. C. Shelesnyak; **Joplin Junior College**, Harry S. Gockel, Cleetis Headlee, Arnold E. Irwin, Mary L. Jeffers, Ernest L. McClymond, Martha A. McCormick, N. Margaret Mitchell, Catherine Selves, Lillian Spangler, Vera M. Steininger, Dorothy Stone, James C. Willey.

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Yeshiva University, Eli M. Levine.

Junior

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Elections to Membership

The Committee on Admission of Members announces the election to membership in the Association of 659 Active and 9 Junior Members, as follows:

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Baker University, Deane Postlethwaite; Ball State Teachers College, John E. Baker, William H. Cates; Bard College, Irving Lazar, James B. Schroyer, Charles J. Tremblay; Bates College, Oliver Andrews, Jr.; Baylor University,

Isabelle Hunt, William L. Williamson; **Blackburn College**, Marion E. Carlson, Patricia Evans, John V. G. Forbes, Barry M. Freeman, Sarah L. Hawes, Mary M. Hursey, William Kreuger, Hung-chun Kung, Harold S. Lowe, Harold E. Spencer, Catherine Wetteroth; **Bluefield State College**, James E. Andrews, John R. Rankin; **Boston University**, John G. Read, Dorothy Speare; **Bowdoin College**, Robert H. Ivy, Jr.; **Bradley University**, Alexander Baird, Harold P. Lucy; **University of British Columbia**, W. Leonard Grant, Alexander Maslow; **Brooklyn College**, James Bakst; **Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn**, Ernest I. Becker, Charles R. Hough; **Brownsville Junior College**, Leslie H. Bonham.

California State Polytechnic College, A. Norman Cruikshanks; **University of California**, Charles S. Muscatine, Edward H. Schafer; **University of California (Los Angeles)**, David G. Ryans; **University of California (Santa Barbara College)**, Richard Kaywood; **Carroll College**, Frank H. Kelly, Tom Stine; **Central College (Arkansas)**, Helen E. Buchanan, Thomas L. Hicks, Marvin L. Stone; **Chapman College**, Kurt Bergel, Edmund R. Harrington; **University of Chicago**, Garth J. Thomas; **Chico State College**, Howard C. Benedict, Arnold E. Needham, Charles C. Scott; **University of Cincinnati**, C. Leslie Martin, Wayne S. Overmyer, Samuel Rapoport, Florence Silverstein; **The City College (New York)**, Paul J. Burke; **Claremont Men's College**, William C. Ide; **Clemson Agricultural College**, Charles E. Kirkwood, Jr.; **Colorado College**, Edwin C. Broome, Jr., Kenneth D. Carroll, William A. Fischer, Richard M. Fox, Hal E. Hagen, Elisabeth B. MacDougall, Gregory J. MacDougall, Audra Dea Marshall, H. Richard Van Saun; **Western State College of Colorado**, Gerald P. Benson, Francis L. Celauro, Emanuel Gonick, E. Martin Hatcher; **University of Colorado**, Robert W. Albright; **Columbia University**, Theodore W. Anderson, Jr., George R. Collins, Donald M. Frame, Howard Levene, Frank W. Schiff, William O. Trapp; **Connecticut College**, Mary T. Reynolds; **Teachers College of Connecticut**, Seward E. Beacom, Francis J. Rio; **University of Connecticut**, Horace J. Fuller; **Cornell University**, Robert C. Clark, Jr., Lloyd H. Elliott, Yung-Huai Kuo, Robert E. McGarrah.

Davidson College, James S. Purcell, Jr.; **Davis and Elkins College**, Thomas R. Ross; **Delaware State College**, Theodore R. Moses; **Denison University**, Robert S. Carter; **University of Denver**, Robert L. Blair, Whitney T. Perkins; **De Paul University**, John R. Cortelyou, Mary A. McWhinnie, Howard Sloan; **University of Detroit**, Michael Albery; **Dominican College of San Rafael**, Edward P. Mumford; **Drake University**, Willard J. Brandt, Doyle Mikesell; **Duke University**, Helen Nahm, Henry S. Roberts, Jr.

Earlham College, Thomas S. Brown, Frederick A. Grohsmeyer, David E. Henley, Millard S. Markle, Merle A. Rousey, Wendell W. Williams; **Elmhurst College**, Ellen D. Bieler, Philip Durham, Tekla Story; **Emory University**, Willis A. Sutton, Jr.; **Everett Junior College**, Marion Bland, Clifford E. Higer, Isabelle A. Kaiser, Charlotte E. Miller, Margaret E. Svec.

Fairleigh Dickinson College, Eugene H. Ehrlich; **Fairmont State College**, Spaulding Rogers; **Fenn College**, Glenn H. Shakley; **Fisk University**, Dwight

H. Wilson; **Florida Southern College**, Robert G. Richards; **Florida State University**, John O. Boynton, Jack W. Eichinger, Jr., Charles W. Frothingham, Laura M. Henry, Mary E. Thomas, S. Elizabeth Thomson, Ralph L. Witherspoon, Thomas G. Wright, Arthur W. Ziegler; **University of Florida**, John A. Harrison, Permillas A. Lee, Jr.; **Fresno State College**, Lloyd Dowler.

George Washington University, Solomon Katzenelbogen; **Georgetown University**, Theodore Sourkes; **North Georgia College**, Benedict R. DeAngelo; **Georgia Institute of Technology**, Samuel C. Ketchin; **University of Georgia**, Clarence J. Smith, Jr., Howard R. Smith, Irwin V. Sperry, Jack Wilson; **Goucher College**, Annelies A. Rose; **Guilford College**, Edward F. Burrows; **Gustavus Adolphus College**, Paul Steen.

Hamline University, Clarence A. Nelson; **Hampton Institute**, Helen B. Goetsch; **Harvard University**, John O. McCormick; **Hofstra College**, Edward M. Anson, David L. Dykstra, Leonard D. Goodstein, Robert W. Harrison, Albert J. Lombardo, Florence Mindell; **Howard University**, David Blackwell, Paul F. Lawrence, Mark H. Watkins.

Northern Idaho College of Education, Benjamin R. Goodhead, Francis D. Haines, Arley F. Rost; **Eastern Illinois State College**, Earl W. Boyd, Arthur F. Byrnes, Clifford L. Fagan, Guss L. Grimm, Ethel I. Hanson, Ruby M. Harris, Arvilla Knuth, Isabelle McClung, Ica Marks, Gordon M. Martin, Otho J. Quick, Harold J. Retallick, Robert C. Ryle, Louis G. Schmidt, Esther Silverstein, Catherine A. Smith; **Western Illinois State College**, R. Bruce Harley, Georgia M. Shideler; **Southern Illinois University**, Phillip H. Olsson, Caroline Raut; **University of Illinois**, Richard G. Brill, John J. DeBoer, Barnard Hewitt, Arthur M. McAnally, Dallas W. Smythe, Marvin Stippes, Emanuel T. Weiler; **University of Illinois (Navy Pier)**, Irwin K. Feinstein, Henry L. Mikolajczyk; **Illinois Wesleyan University**, Robert O. Gibbon, George H. Orwig, John A. Pettit, Samuel C. Ratcliffe; **Indiana University**, Howard T. Batchelder, Bernard L. Weddel, Fred Witney; **Iowa State College**, G. L. Bridger, Frederick R. Duke, Ralph L. Freeman, L. Sigfred Linderoth, Jr.; **Iowa State Teachers College**, Ellen Aakrik, Hulda Ahlschwede, Ruth A. Allen, Joseph A. Bolinsky, E. Jean Bontz, Irving H. Brune, Jack W. Burgner, Richard L. Crossman, William L. J. Dee, Miles H. Esget, Mary Green, Peter G. Haines, Elbert W. Hamilton, Mary W. Hanawalt, Clifford H. Herrold, Katherine Humphrey, Oliver P. Kolstoe, Edward Kurtz, Charles T. Leavitt, Fred W. Lott, Jr., Walter A. Lucas, Lauretta G. McCusker, Peter M. Mazula, Vernon N. Mork, Gilbert W. Mouser, Selma E. Nelson, Francis S. Phraner, Farnham G. Pope, John B. Powell, Dorothy L. Price, Harold Rice, Donald H. Rollstin, George W. Samson, Pauline L. Sauer, Raymond J. Schlicher, Marshall Schools, Lorraine Schueller, Rhoda H. Stratton, Adeline Torgrimson, Dorothy E. Wineke, Nina M. Yeager, Dorothy Yennie; **Iowa Wesleyan College**, William H. Herrmann.

John Carroll University, John Molnar; **Juniata College**, Mildred A. Tausch.

Kansas State College, Golda M. Crawford, Fred A. Kummerow, Edith M. Ridgeway, Robert G. Stanley, Thomas B. Steunenber; **Kansas State**

Teachers College (Emporia), Darrell E. Wood; University of Kansas, Leola S. Horowitz, Charles W. Loughton, Jr., Alton Thomas; University of Kansas City, Evaline M. Hartley; University of Kentucky, Maurice A. Clay, Gordon R. Leader, James M. Schreyer, William F. Wagner; Keuka College, Rita I. Hunter, Quentin T. Lightner, Rita S. Woodford; Keystone Junior College, Alexander H. Anderson, Jr., Hubert Vecchierello; Kirksville College of Osteopathy and Surgery, Neil Johnstone.

Lake Forest College, Doris L. Borrusch, J. Edward Dirks; Lamar College, Charles H. Wilbanks; Langston University, Julius H. Hughes, Samuel P. Massie; LaSalle College, Joseph G. Grassi, Richard T. Hoar, John J. Rooney; Lincoln Memorial University, Klaus Speer; Lindenwood College, Dorothy Ely, Donn W. Hayes, Martha Reese; Louisiana College, Annie L. Brackett, Ivey Gravette; Southwestern Louisiana Institute, Maurice P. Dossey, Howard Turner; Northwestern State College of Louisiana, John Piscopo; Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Dennis P. Noah; Loyola University (Chicago), Sally W. Cassidy; Loyola University (Louisiana), James Kalshoven; Lutheran Theological Southern Seminary, John B. Moose; Lynchburg College, Hughes L. Buerger, Jr.

University of Maine, Kenneth W. Davidson, Paul W. Howells, Lyle C. Jenness, Winthrop C. Libby, Irving H. Prageman, Benjamin R. Speicher, James M. Whitten; University of Manitoba, George L. Brodersen, Nathan S. Mendelsohn, William L. Morton, Harry Steinhauer; Marietta College, Dan F. Baker, Leslie E. Blough, Wen-Yu Cheng, Nelson V. Davis, Harold L. Dean, Paul R. Gawthrop, John E. Sandt, Bernard B. Schlanger, L. Blaine Tewksbury, Jr., David Zesmer; Maryland State Teachers College (Frostburg), Frederick Pistor; University of Maryland, John A. Daiker, Harry J. Romm; Massachusetts State Teachers College (Framingham), Ada M. Shawkey; Massachusetts State Teachers College (Worcester), Marguerite C. McKelligett; University of Massachusetts, Walter S. Eisenmenger; Mercer University, D. Kelley Barnett; University of Miami, James A. Jarvis; Northern Michigan College of Education, Roy M. McCollom, Calvin E. Schorer; Western Michigan College of Education, Donald M. Martin; Michigan College of Mining and Technology, Louis S. Drake, Dalton E. McFarland, Carl R. Moss; University of Michigan, Richard K. Beardsley, Emerson F. Greenman; Miles College, Myrtle W. Blissett; Mills College, H. Orville Nordberg; Millsaps College, Jack E. Prince, Walter L. Withers; University of Minnesota; James R. Beer, Laurence K. Cutkomp, John E. Dobbin, Ethel R. Gorham, Marshall C. Hervey, Gotthilf Jorgensen, Thomas H. King, Warren G. Meyer, Samuel H. Monk, Howard A. Morris, Truman R. Nodland, Joseph C. Olson, Jr., Marietta Pérez, Milo J. Peterson, Minard W. Stout, David W. Thompson; Mississippi State College, William P. Carter, Clyde H. Farnsworth, Malcolm G. Gray, Thomas A. Kelly, Roy A. Klages, Oscar H. Little, William W. Littlejohn, Howard Nicely, Dale J. Richey, Dorris W. Rivers, Edwin S. Sanders, Thurston Walls, Louise Whitlow, Lois Williams, Ben M. Wofford; Mississippi State College for Women, Joseph B. James, James E. Poindexter;

Missouri School of Mines and Metallurgy, Alvin C. Steinbach; Southeast Missouri State College, Walter Roth, Wayne L. Thurman; Southwest Missouri State College Vivian M. Ford; Northwest Missouri State Teachers College, Anne Arnold, Mabel Cook, Jessie B. Jutten, Paul T. McNutt, Effie Mae Morrey; University of Missouri, Albert Brent, Paul Y. Burns; Montana State University, John A. Chapman; Montgomery Junior College, George S. Morrison, Roi M. White, Stephen G. Wright; Morningside College, Mary Bowne; Muhlenberg College, William C. Wilbur, Jr.

National College of Education, Mary-Louise Neumann; Nebraska State Teachers College (Kearney), Phyllis Campbell, N. Richard Diffenderfer, Robert W. House, Clara A. Johnson, Minnie E. Larson, Glo Rose Mitchell, Helen Sampson, Malvina S. Stoutemyer, Reuben R. Wagner; University of Nebraska, Max M. Whittaker, John Wiley; Eastern New Mexico University, Amos H. Lytton; New Mexico State College, Sanford C. Gladden, Wanda Tilden; University of New Mexico, Gertrude Richards; New York University, Carl E. Gregory, Walter W. Haines, Hazel Haskett, Harold G. Lorsch, Stanley F. Pechar, Charles Seligson; Newberry College, Annie Lee Whitaker; Niagara University, John L. Storm; North Carolina College at Durham, Vivian W. Henderson; North Carolina State College, Stuart Noblin; University of North Carolina, Ruth Gilpin, Katharine Jocher, William S. Newman, James S. Patty; Woman's College of the University of North Carolina, William R. Barrett; North Central College, Edward Schap; University of North Dakota, George I. J. Dixon, Lawrence J. Edwards, L. Fernald Foster, Jr., Raymond L. Gorden, Nicholas N. Kohanowski, Gerard M. Mertens, Lyndon R. Musolf, Quentin W. Welty; Northwestern University, Daniel C. Boughner, Henry E. Collins, Donald DeFord.

Occidental College, James M. Anderson; Ohio State University, William M. MacNevin, William P. Martin, Oskar Seidlin, Dwight L. Smith, Louis E. Vandegrift, William A. Wayt; University of Omaha, Laura E. Titzell; Oregon State College, W. J. Chamberlin, Oliver Lawrence, Martin J. Ludwig, Bernard Malamud; University of Oregon, Bayard H. McConnaughey, Rudolph Ottenbacher, John T. Van Bruggen.

Pacific University, Roland N. Adams, Tyler Allhands, Anna Berliner, John W. Berry, Joseph W. Brough, Jr., Richard Eilbott, Homer T. Knight, Ruby M. Peregrine, John J. Wuest; Pennsylvania College for Women, Elsie Gulyas; Pennsylvania State College, Betty C. Delavan, Elizabeth McDowell, Francena L. Nolan, William R. Shaffer, Beth K. Wham; Pennsylvania State College (Swarthmore), Edward Fishman; Pennsylvania State Teachers College (East Stroudsburg), Katherine B. McFarland, Francis B. McGarry, Jonas T. May; University of Pennsylvania, G. Malcom Laws, Jr., Donald W. Sanville; University of the Philippines, Herbert G. Haljaspol; Phoenix College, Sam L. Bobo; University of Pittsburgh, A. David Lazovik; Pomona College, Louis B. Perry; Prairie View Agricultural and Mechanical College, Robert B. Jefferson, Dean S. Yarbrough; Princeton University, Gustave M. Gilbert, Joseph G. Phelan, Lyman Spitzer, Jr., Christof Wegelin;

Polytechnic Institute of Puerto Rico, Laura G. Bover, Erskine McKinley, Ismael Vélez; College of Puget Sound, Murray Morgan, D. Robert Smith, Norman F. Washburne; Purdue University, A. Earl Bell, Edward M. Bennett, Robert H. Hawkins, Ray C. Maize.

Queens College (New York), Evelyn Steele.

Randolph-Macon Woman's College, Roberta D. Cornelius; Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Arthur L. Levy; University of Richmond, Perry C. Holt; Roosevelt College, Donald C. Baum, Bernard Greenberg, Martha Silvius.

St. Francis College (Pennsylvania), Jack M. Grant; St. John's University, C. Gordon Higgins, Frank J. Kreysa; St. Louis University, Kenneth H. Adams, Joseph J. Conradi; St. Michael's College, Otto C. Kohler, Charles A. McIsaac, Andrew Woloszyn; College of St. Thomas, Robert L. Probst; St. Vincent College, John J. L. Johnson, Thomas F. Jordan, Daniel P. Nolan, George J. Zvirblis; Sacramento College, George W. Creel; Salem College, Elizabeth Welch; City College of San Francisco, Leah Levikow, Samuel B. Ziegler; San Francisco State College, Jean Blackman; San Jose State College, Eleanor Coombe, Mary H. Hooton, Bert M. Morris, Louise Shoup, Mary S. Wiley, Ethel E. Wright; University of Scranton, Charles J. Buckley; Seton Hall College, James F. Liebke; Shorter College, Virginia B. Mathis; Simmons College, Waldo E. Palmer; Simpson College, Delber L. McKee, Chester A. Morgan; Medical College of the State of South Carolina, Bernard Metz; State Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural and Mechanical College of South Carolina, J. Wilson Cutliff; University of South Carolina, Joseph W. Everett, Jr., Olin S. Pugh, William B. Woodward; University of Southern California, Jack Flasher, Paul R. Saunders; Southern Methodist University, Laurence Perrine; Southern University, Eugene McGowan, Jesse L. Murray; Southwestern State College, Glenn R. Snider; Stout Institute, Ray C. Johnson, C. Harrison Parmer, Lloyd Whydotski; Sul Rose State Teachers College, A. N. Foster; Syracuse University, Ethel Albert, Irwin Harvey, Otway Pardee; Syracuse University (Utica College), Raymond Simon.

Temple University, Ingrid Hahne, Gilbert M. Hill; East Tennessee State College, Ella V. Ross; University of Tennessee, Laurence R. Fitzgerald; Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, John J. Bryan, David E. Carlson; Texas State College for Women, Casse P. Dickinson, Eva H. Mark; East Texas State Teachers College, Wallace J. Bonk; Texas State University for Negroes, James Vinson; University of Texas, Olin E. Hinkle, Arthur Ruskin, Paul E. Tullar; University of Toledo, Alice Rosler; Tufts College, Robert M. Kozelka; Tulane University, Dorrian Apple, Carl H. Hamburg.

Union College (Kentucky), Joseph R. Henderson; Utah State Agricultural College, William F. Sigler; University of Utah, Charles H. Anderson.

Vassar College, John W. Streeter; Villanova College, Joseph B. Conway, Louis A. Donaghue, Francis J. Donohue, Robert P. Koob, James R. McCormick, Peter F. Mento, Donald A. Nienstedt, John J. Patton, John T. Queenan; Virginia State College, William S. Cooper, Timothy R. Wells, R.

Finley Wood; University of Virginia (Mary Washington College), Mary E. Stephenson.

Washington College, David D. Bates, A. Bascom Hardcastle, W. Stanley Krisher, Ralph R. Thornton, Charles H. Voelker, H. Linwood Yager; Eastern Washington College of Education, Celia B. Allen, Wilfred Beard, Jane Patterson; State College of Washington, Frank G. Anderson, John B. Edlefsen, Edward Gross, George A. Medley; Washington University, Leonard Berkowitz, Franklin Haimo, George E. Pake; University of Washington, Joseph A. Cavanaugh, Edmund E. Dudek, Frank L. Parks, Aubrey Wendling; Wayne University, Mead W. Killion; Western Reserve University, John A. Cassidy, R. Maxine P. Jones, Ernest Yeager; Westminster College (Pennsylvania), Donald G. Hartman, Donald E. Lathrope; Whittier College, Robert P. Kraft, Margaretha Lohmann, Gerald R. Patton, Eugene M. Riddle; Whitworth College, Homer E. Alder; Municipal University of Wichita, Carl E. Ortmeier, William D. Tuxbury; College of William and Mary, Theodore M. Moore; Wisconsin State Teachers College (Milwaukee) Earl M. Grotke; Wisconsin State Teachers College (River Falls) Virginia Akins, Carleton C. Ames, Nathalie Delander, Carrie Dorsey, Ann Dubbe, Robert C. Fisler, Marion E. Hawkins, Joseph T. Hoy, Glen P. Junkman, Rudolph A. Karges, Opal A. Knox, Berger S. Kolberg, Louis A. Kollmeyer, Bernard L. McCarthy, John M. May, John G. Mosher, Jr., George K. Schlagenhauf, Oscar W. Sjowall, Thorvald E. Thoreson, Edward Urbanich, Melvin L. Wall; Wisconsin State Teachers College (Whitewater), John A. Heide; Wittenberg College, William Coyle, Claude E. Dierolf, Karl G. Lind.

Yale University, George Nordmeyer, Rollin G. Osterweis.

Transfers from Junior to Active

Alfred University, Stephen C. Clark III; University of Arizona, Loyal A. T. Gryting; Baldwin Wallace College, William J. MacLeod; Bowling Green State University, John K. Mires, Grayce Scholt; University of Buffalo, Sanford B. Halperin; Duquesne University, Peter M. Puccetti, Severino A. Russo; Hofstra College, William H. Burke; University of Illinois, Robert E. Collard, Lois T. Hartley; Lake Forest College, Mungo Miller; Loyola University (Illinois), George D. Hollenhorst; Lynchburg College, Morton Nachlas; University of Miami, Charles W. Philhour; University of Michigan, F. Andrew Brown, Paul E. Cairns, Richard E. Clark, John J. Dreher, Frank Fletcher, Robert F. Haugh, Anthony Pasquariello, James B. Wallace; Southwest Missouri State College, David C. Scott; New Mexico State College, Albert Burris; North Texas State College, Antonio Garcia; Rutgers University (Newark Colleges), Arthur Eisenstadt; University of Southern California, Donald R. O'Connor; Sweet Briar College, Mary A. Lee; Vassar College, Mary P. Dolciani; Western Reserve University, Priscilla Tyler.

Junior

University of Alabama, W. U. McDonald; University of Cincinnati, Lorean

A. Pirrung; Drake University, Carol M. Goodwin; University of Minnesota, Arthur W. Rudnick, Jr., Pennsylvania State College, Paul G. Andrews; University of Virginia, James E. Kinard; Not in Accredited Institutional Connection, E. Vera Idol (M.A., Columbia University), High Point, North Carolina; Robert L. Scribner (Ph.D., University of Virginia), Oglethorpe, Georgia; Abraham B. Shoulson (Graduate work, Yeshiva University), Erie, Pennsylvania.

Membership Records—Addresses Unknown

Many members of the Association fail to inform the Central Office of the Association of changes in their mailing address with the result that each year hundreds of *Bulletins* of the Association and other Association mail are returned by the post office marked "address unknown." In the case of the *Bulletins*, the return postage must be paid by the Association and this item of expense is large.

The members whose names appear below are among the members for whom Association *Bulletins* and other mail have been returned. These members were affiliated with institutions that have been discontinued. Members of the Association who know the present address of any of these members are urged to make this information available to the General Secretary of the Association, 1101 Connecticut Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Associated Colleges of Upper New York (Mohawk College), Utica, N. Y.

Andersen, Howard K.

Associated Colleges of Upper New York (Sampson College), Sampson, N. Y.

Anuswith, Edwin J.
 Birnbaum, Bernard P.
 Boyd, Clark E.
 Cassen, Philip H.
 Chaikin, Philip
 Cheskin, Irving W.
 Clark, Burton
 Cook, Charles H., Jr.
 Da Brescia, Frank
 Dakin, Merrill

Freeman, Frankie M.
 Linton, Charles L.
 Mullen, Edward F.
 Norton, LeRoi M.
 Petronits, Stephen J.
 Rensing, Arthur C.
 Sherrill, Hunting
 Smith, June N.
 Wurtz, Harry S.
 Zarik, Isadore A.

University of Illinois (Galesburg Division)

Arnold, Don W.	Jones, G. Edward
Botts, Joseph T.	Lafferty, William A.
Carroll, Raymond E.	La Rue, Anna V.
Crockett, H. Kelly	McSwane, Clarence I.
Dailey, Alan	Milcenzy, Evelyn
Ehrenberg, Violet	Mullen, Harvey
Fesler, Helen H.	Odell, Dorothy
Fries, Raymond F.	Perry, Clarence J.
Glabe, Gordon	Pretzer, Elizabeth J.
Glawe, John F.	Raymond, Ralph W.
Greene, Romain G.	kobb, Robert Y.
Grubgeld, Jane	Smith, Marjorie
Habberton, William	Thornton, Robert W.
Hopkins, Barbara J.	Warren, Harold J.

University of Massachusetts (Fort Devens Branch), Fort Devens, Mass.

Calhoun, Barbara	Pascal, Francis
	Shepardson, Francis B.

Academic Vacancies and Teachers Available

To assist in the placement of college and university teachers the American Association of University Professors publishes notices of academic vacancies and of teachers available. It is optional with appointing officers and teachers to publish names and addresses or to use key numbers.

Letters in reference to announcements published under key numbers should be sent to the Association's central office for forwarding to the persons concerned. Address in care of the General Secretary, American Association of University Professors, 1101 Connecticut Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Vacancies Reported

Instructor, sophomore physics, freshman engineering drawing, descriptive geometry, and surveying. One-year appointment, substituting for member of department on leave of absence. Degree in engineering, or M.A. in physics required, also minimum of 2 years' experience. Salary: \$4412.50 (9 months). Low rent government quarters provided. Free transportation to and from New York, reduced rate for members of family. Work starts September, 1950. Address applications to Dean, Canal Zone Junior College, Balboa Heights, C. Z.

Laboratory Schools: Director to be elected, in old but liberal Middle Western Teachers College; should be strong, well trained man with Doctorate in Education; Elementary and Junior High School experience desirable. Should have interest in integration program, newer trends in teacher-training and research. Fine professional opportunity for vigorous, capable person. V 1294

Teachers Available

Accounting, basic, intermediate, advanced: Man, 39, married. A.B., B.S.C., and M.A. degrees. Holds membership in American Accounting Association and National Association of Cost Accountants. Broad experience in college teaching for 10 years. 4 years in business and governmental work. Versatile in all business administration subjects but particularly interested in Auditing and Cost Accounting. Prefers a position of responsibility in a good junior college. Available upon short notice. A 3405

Accounting, Economics, Management: Man, married. A.B., M.A., R.A. Diversified college teaching experience. Heavy business background. At present employed as chairman of school of business. Desires to relocate in Midwest. Available June or September, 1950. A 3406

Administration: Ph.D. Wide experience as a college executive, director of public relations, department head, and psychologist. A 3407

Administrative, Academic Dean, Presidency: Ph.D., History and Political Science. 20 years' experience state and church colleges: teaching, department head, division chairman, director summer session, college dean. Early forties. Member numerous honorary fraternities; various publications. *Who's Who in America*, *Who's Who in Education*, *Who Knows and What*, and others. Teaching or executive post. A 3408

- Administration, English: M.A., Phi Delta Kappa, A.A.T.F., C.E.A.; seeking position for growth in junior college or community college; experience as assistant professor, department chairman, and dean; prefer dual position with wife instructing or conducting recreation and physical education programs. A 3409
- Advertising, Marketing, social science aspects of press, radio, films: Married, 1 child. B.S. in business administration, Northeastern; Ed.M., Boston University; M.S., University of Illinois. Course work for Ph.D. in mass communications to be completed June, 1950. Available for full-time teaching September, 1950. 4 years of college teaching experience, including University of Illinois. Desires assistant professorship and opportunities for advancement. Robert B. Wentworth, C 51 Stadium Terrace, Champaign, Illinois. A 3410
- Anthropology, Human Geography, Sociology, Oriental History, Religion: Man, 33, single. A.M., working on Ph.D. thesis. Over 2 years' university teaching. Wishes full or part-time teaching, first half of summer session only, June-July, 1950. A 3411
- Architect: 40 years old. Licensed architect with 5 years' teaching experience; former student of Corbusier, Gropius, and Moholy-Nagy; looking for a teaching position with a progressive school to teach design, history, and city planning. A 3412
- Art (Fine and Commercial Art): Man, married. M.A. degree and professional art training. 11 years of teaching and administrative experience, including the past 7 years directing and teaching graduate and undergraduate art courses. Now head of department, listed in *Who's Who in American Art*. Can be available in June or September, 1950. Interested in a teaching and/or administrative position. A 3413
- Art (History), Dramatics, French: Man, 44, married. Ph.D., Phi Beta Kappa. Associate Professor in Eastern college and chairman of department, with long experience in teaching, administrative work, direction of Dramatics and museum and art gallery work, entirely at college and university level, seeks opportunity to practice competence in combined fields. Bi-lingual in French, with years of study and residence abroad. Field of research and writing, interrelationship of the arts and literature. Especially interested in combining classroom work with management of creative activities. Available September, 1950. A 3414
- Art Historian: Ph.D. Skilled teacher with broad cultural interests and extensive study and travel abroad, author of two books, would like to transfer from small college to metropolitan area with good library facilities. A 3415
- Art (History of Art, Fine Arts, Archaeology): Ph.D., married. College department head, broad teaching and lecture experience, numerous scholarly publications, extensive foreign study and travel, member several learned societies. Holds good position. Location desired: East. A 3416
- Art (Painting, Aesthetics, Art Education): Man, 29, married, 1 child. M.A. Department Head. Now teaching at Midwestern liberal arts college. Interested in responsible position at first-rate college or university. Prefer East, Central, or Southern location. Available June or September, 1950. A 3417
- Art (Practice and History): Man, married. Exhibitions, graduate degrees. European born and travelled, American citizen. Graphic, easel, and fresco techniques, experience in sculpture, ceramics; survey and specialized art history courses; criticism. Would accept less salary for lighter schedule, permitting own work; would cooperate enthusiastically with college adapting its curriculum to spiritual and social needs of the present. Successful teaching experience; desires change Sept. 1950 or 1951. A 3418
- Audio-Visual Instruction: Man, 35, married. Ph.D. in Education (Dissertation in audio-visual field). Over 11 years' varied experience as university, college, and secondary school teacher, head of college audio-visual department, and student

- counselor. Professional publications. Frequent speaker before professional and lay groups. Veteran of $3\frac{1}{2}$ years' service in AAF, Signal Corps and Special Services Division, ASF, as audio-visual specialist. Now serving as consultant, and teaching in Eastern college. Interested in administrative and/or teaching position offering opportunity to develop audio-visual methods. Wife experienced editor on several national magazines. Available September, 1950. A 3418
- Biology: Man, 36, married, 2 children. B.Sc. in Ed., M.A. in Bio., Bowling Green State Univ. Graduate student Duke Univ. Present position, high school science teacher. Vice-Pres. of county teachers association; member Ohio Academy of Science. Prepared to teach General Biology, Botany. Special teaching interest—Biological technique (methods and preparation of biological material, cultures, microscopic slides, etc.). Minimum \$3200. Available Sept. A 3419
- Biology, Zoology: Man, 37, single. Ph.D. in Zoology and Biochemistry. Now associated with large aquarium, East Coast. Broad experience in academic zoological sciences as well as natural history in the field. National Research Fellow, 1946-1947. Experience East and West Coasts, Canal Zone, Rocky Mountains. Qualified to teach general zoology, anatomy and embryology of vertebrates and invertebrates, ornithology; comparative, mammalian and general physiology, marine biology. Would like position in West Coast or Mountain State college or university. Available September, 1950. A 3420
- Biology (Zoology, Botany, Entomology, Embryology, Field courses, Laboratory Techniques, related subjects): Man, 31, married, 1 child. Ph.D. 5 years' college teaching; 4 years' experience as entomologist. Listed in newest edition *American Men of Science* and *Who's Who in American Education*. Publications and research. Now teaching in college. Desires good position in university or college with adequate salary, opportunity for advancement, tenure, and emphasis especially on good teaching. Available June or September, 1950. A 3421
- Business Administration: Man, 36. B.S., M.B.A., D.C.S., LL.B., C.L.U., Bar. 8 years' practical business experience in taxation, law, insurance, real estate, investment banking, and accounting. 3 years as Associate Professor. Invites correspondence as Professor or Department Head. A 3422
- Business Administration and Economics: Man. Now head of college of business administration and economics of state institution. Has taught wide range of courses. Listed in *Directory of American Scholars*, *Who's Who in the West*, etc. Member American Economic Association, American Marketing Association, Society for the Advancement of Management. Desires change of location. A 3423
- Business and Economic Statistics, Labor Problems, Finance: Man, 46. Ph.D. 20 years' teaching experience. Publications. Desires permanent position. Available June, 1950. A 3424
- Chemist: Ph.D., with research, industrial, and teaching experience. Want position teaching inorganic, general, analytical, or physical chemistry. Available on short notice. A 3425
- Chemistry: Experienced teacher of organic, physical, inorganic, and analytical chemistry. Ph.D. Head of chemistry department. Experienced in equipping new laboratories. 5 years of industrial experience. Presently employed but desire position offering greater research opportunities. A 3426
- Chemistry: Dr. George W. Muhleman, 1450 Englewood Ave., St. Paul E 4, Minnesota, announces that he is available as visiting professor of chemistry either whole or part-time, preferably South or Southwest. Author of textbooks and many published articles. Phi Beta Kappa, Sigma Xi, *Who's Who*, *American Men of Science*.
- Counselor, Vocational and/or Teacher, Psychology, Journalism, Public Speaking: Man, 31, married. A.B., Education; M.A. Guidance. Veteran. Available May

1st. Experienced as Assistant Dean of Men, and in Community Relations.

A 3427

Dean of Women and/or Counselor to Foreign Students; Director of Student Personnel Work: M.A. Professional Diploma, Teachers College, Columbia University recently. At present Dean of Women. 2 years' experience in a foreign university. 7 years' experience in college counseling and teaching Guidance, Psychology, and Education. Extensive foreign travel. Marquis' *Who's Who in the Middle West*, Kappa Delta Pi, Pi Lambda Theta, A.A.U.W., N.A.D.W., A.A.U.P. (associate). Available summer, 1950.

A 3428

Drama-Speech: Man, 45. Ph.D. Iowa, Yale; Phi Beta Kappa. 17 years' experience in college speech-drama teaching. Specialties: theater courses (directing, acting, etc.), esthetics, criticism, playwriting, group and individual interpretative reading, radio, discussion, graduate research. Superior platform reader; have acted in and directed many plays in professional stock, little theaters, and colleges. Articles published on esthetics, criticism, and theaters. Need summer position. Also interested in changing from my present location.

A 3429

Economics: Man, 35, married, 3 children. M.A., candidate, Ph.D. Specializing in Economic Geography and Economic History, but can also teach English and Education if combination desired. Several years' experience in college teaching. Excellent credentials. Seeks advancement.

A 3430

Economics, Accounts, Statistics, and Mathematics: Englishman, 43. M.A. of the University of Oxford. Formerly Chief Statistician in H.M. Colonial Office, London, formerly Flight Lieutenant, Royal Air Force, immigrated into U. S. for permanent residence in 1947 and now teaching the University System of Georgia; desires appointments for summer vacation 1950 and for academic year 1950-1951, preferably in Northeastern state.

A 3431

Economics, Marketing, Statistics: Assistant Professor, 40, in western college desires position near northern New Jersey home. Ph.D. courses partially completed; M.A. in economics, Columbia; B.S. in marketing, N.Y.U. Market analyst, writer, and teacher prior to war; government economist in charge of training economic analysts, 1944-1947; since then teaching advertising, business cycles and sales forecasting, principles of marketing, and statistics. Objectives: (1) development and application of teaching methods that inspire learning; (2) writing readable textbooks.

A 3432

Economics, Public Finance, Transportation and Public Utilities: Man, 39, married. Ph.D. 7 years' teaching experience; 4 years' federal and state administrative experience; 2 years' business experience. Extensive list of publications. 3 years' travel abroad. Now employed state university. Desires permanent change of location, teaching and/or engaging in research. Will consider departmental head. Available February or June, 1950.

A 3433

Economics, Public Finance, Public Utilities, Taxation, Public Administration, Municipal Administration, European Political and Economic Institutions, Economic History, European History, Population and Migration: Man, 39, of German origin, married. M.A., Northwestern University; European Ph.D. Experience in teaching. Presently head of a German municipal statistical office and addressograph department. Desires position as instructor in an American college.

A 3434

Economics, Secondary Education: Man, 26, married, 2 children. Complete requirements for M.A. in August, 1950. 1 year teaching social sciences in high school, 1 year as graduate assistant while working on M.A. Desires a teaching position in a junior college or small college anywhere in the U. S. Available September, 1950.

A 3435

Education, Administration, or Academic Dean: Man, under 40. Ph.D. Now employed as academic dean small Midwestern university. Interested in like posi-

- tion, or professorship in Midwestern or Western college. Specializes in educational philosophy, counselling, and administration. Work in guidance and religion. Articles, listed in *Who's Who in America*, *Who's Who in American Education*. Member, AAUP, AAPSS, Alpha Chi. Consider summer appointment with permanent possibilities. A 3436
- Education or German: Man, 38, married, 2 children. B.A. and M.S. in Education; expects Ph.D. in Education from Eastern university, October, 1950. Bi-lingual. Graduate work in German and Education here and abroad. 11 years' teaching experience. Diversified secondary school experience included, also social studies. 6 years' college teaching included courses on: Goethe, Romanticism, and Realism in Germany, Methods of Teaching German. 2 years of government work. Keenly interested in teacher training. Seeking advancement from present position. Available in September, 1950. A 3437
- Engineering—Mechanical: Man, 31, single. M.S. degree and working toward Doctor's. 5 years' industrial experience in design and research. 3 years' teaching experience. Teaching interests: Strength of Materials, Mechanics, Machine Design, Thermodynamics. Member ASME, AAUP. Invites correspondence regarding position as professor. A 3438
- English: Woman, 27. A.M.; Ph.D. candidate, University of Pennsylvania. Experience: 2 years' high school, 3 years' college teaching. Renaissance through eighteenth century; survey of English literature; humanities. A 3439
- English: Man, 30, single. B.A., with highest honors; M.A.; completing doctoral dissertation, Columbia University. Phi Beta Kappa; other honors. 4 years' teaching experience. Drama, Literary Criticism, World Literature. A 3440
- English: Woman, 34, single. B.S. degree from University of Illinois; Master of Arts degree from Northwestern and some work done on doctor's degree. 12 years' teaching in English, especially Rhetoric. Excellent references. Interested in summer position for 1950 and fall of 1950 any place in United States or foreign countries. A 3441
- English: Man, 48, married, 2 sons, Protestant. M.A., Ph.D., Yale. 20 years' college teaching, newspaper editor 3 summers. Major interests: Writing, American Literature, Victorian. Ranks held: Associate Professor; Head of Department. Excellent references. Available summer or fall, 1950. \$3800-\$4000 minimum. A 3442
- English: Man, 30. Now visiting instructor at an excellent Eastern college; previously taught 2 years at large Midwestern university. Especially strong in Creative Writing, American Literature, the Novel, Contemporary Literature; in addition, have taught English Literature Survey and Advanced Exposition. Fiction and verse published. Ph.D. expected August, 1950. Available fall, 1950. Robert Humphrey, 7440 North Hoyne Ave., Chicago 45, Illinois.
- English: Man, 33, married, 2 children. Ph.D. 7 years' teaching. Specialties: Drama; Shakespeare; Literary Criticism. Has taught other courses. Active work in theater. Available September, 1950. A 3443
- English: Man, 38, married, children. Ph.D. 14 years' college teaching. Phi Beta Kappa, Phi Kappa Phi, graduate honors. Publications. Specialties: American literature and advanced writing. Desires associate professorship or professorship in good university or first-rate coeducational arts college. Available summer or fall, 1950. A 3444
- English: Man, 42, married. Ph.D. 8 years' college teaching. Major field: Victorian. Taught or teaching: Shakespeare; Eighteenth Century; Great Books; Criticism; Modern Drama. Publications: Abstract of thesis; bibliography. Excellent references. Available September, 1950. A 3445
- English: Man, 42, married. Ph.D., Minnesota; 17 years' experience, last 9 as department head at small Eastern university. Special interests, 19th century

English literature, "general education" in humanities. Publications. Desires full or associate professorship, preferably in not too large, coeducational, liberal arts college in East or Middle West. Reason for change: desires to find a wider rut.

A 3446

English: Man, married. Ph.D. 6 years' college and university teaching. *Who's Who in the Midwest*. Phi Beta Kappa, etc. Specialist in Restoration, 18th century, and early English and continental novel. Also interested in first two years of English curriculum. Looking for a school with high academic standards. At present assistant professor in state university. Available in June, 1950. A 3447

English: Man, 32, married, 1 child. Bachelor, Social Sciences; Ph.D., English, Johns Hopkins. 7½ years' teaching experience. Publications in 18th century English literature and modern American literature. Available summer or fall, 1950. A 3448

Far East, Political Science (Chinese Ideas, Government, Far Eastern International Relations, Chinese Language): Man, 32, married. B.A., Yenching, China, 1941; M.A., University of Washington, 1942; M.A. and Ph.D., Princeton University, 1944. 2 years' teaching in China as assistant professor. 2 years' experience in Chinese foreign service. Available fall, 1950. A 3449

French: Veteran, 32, single. Docteur de l'Université de Paris. 6 years' teaching experience. 4 years officer in various branches of Army Intelligence during the war. At present educational adviser with the U. S. Occupational Forces in Germany. Present salary: \$6000. Salary and rank expected: \$4800, Assistant Professor. Available June, 1950. A 3450

French and Comparative Literature: American citizen. Ph.D., Columbia University. Also degrees from important European universities. Excellent record. Complete mastery of French, German, and Italian. 10 years' teaching experience, undergraduate and graduate; also with American organization abroad. Important publications in French and comparative literature. At present associate professor; further promotion blocked by existing tenures. Desires permanent position in high ranking institution, East, West, or South. Available fall, 1950 or 1951. A 3451

French, Spanish: Man, 42, single. M.A., Certificat (Sorbonne), Ph.D. in progress. 13 years of teaching, 7 years' experience in American universities. Extended foreign travel and study. Publications. Member of leading professional societies. Desires placement in college or university for January or September, 1950. A 3452

Geography, Classics, German: Man. Ph.D. American citizen of German descent. Experienced in teaching and research. Scholarly publications. Widely travelled. At southern college for last 7 years. Excellent references. Looking for position as assist. or assoc. professor. Available June, 1950. A 3453

German: Man, 30, German-born. Thesis for Ph.D. almost completed; graduate study and scholarships, universities of Geneva, Zurich, Columbia. Teaching experience in Germany, Italy, France, Switzerland. At present in New England woman's college part-time. Publications, excellent recommendations and references. Desires full-time position as instructor. Great interest in advising foreign students. Prefers New England or Eastern seaboard. Available June, 1950. A 3454

German: Man, 48, German-born American citizen. "Security clear," with OSS during the war. Ph.D. and equivalent of M.A. from German university; 10 years' successful teaching at U. S. universities; also holds junior college teaching credential. All courses in German language and literature, including scientific German, drama, and lyrics. Author of plays, verse, and essays. Extended foreign travel; excellent references. A 3455

- German: Mature man, American citizen, Protestant. Ph.D. Over 20 years' successful teaching experience in American colleges and universities. Study and travel abroad. Articles and book reviews in leading journals. Administrative experience as head of department in small college. Has taught all phases of undergraduate German. Available June or September, 1950. A 3456
- German and Humanities: Mature man. Ph.D., magna cum laude. 13 years of teaching experience in American colleges. ASTP. Specialty: veterans' readjustment. Available after June, 1950. Teaches also courses in Comparative Literature. A 3457
- German, Student Counseling and Administration: Man, 35, single, American-born. M.A. and M.Ed. degrees; work on Ph.D. in progress. Experienced university instructor; part-time administrative assignment with dean of college of liberal arts, and experience in student counseling-guidance. Present salary \$4500; interested in position which will offer permanent tenure, opportunity to do some real teaching—no research—and, if desired, continue in counseling and/or administrative work. Location no objective; best credentials. A 3458
- Greek: 35, unmarried. A.B., Bryn Mawr College, Titular B.A. Cantab.; Ph.D., Bryn Mawr College. Former Bryn Mawr European Fellow, former Sibley Fellow of Phi Beta Kappa. At present associate professor of Classics, Chairman, Department of Classics, Secretary of Faculty, small Eastern women's college. One brief article, *Classical Philology*, 1946. Account of committee service, past 6 years, furnished on request. Seeks position with chance of advanced, and if possible graduate, teaching in Greek, with possibility of time for research rather than committee work. No objection to drop in rank if salary adequate. (Would also consider some form of administrative work, but must concentrate soon in one area or the other.) Available September, 1950, if quick decisions possible, otherwise June, 1951. A 3459
- Guidance, Personnel Work: Mature man, experienced secondary school, college, and university, with wealth of non-academic experience, Harvard doctorate. Interested in moving into a more challenging situation. Available June or September. A 3460
- History: Man, veteran, 30. M.A., Ph.D. being completed at Columbia University. 3 years' college teaching experience Eastern liberal arts school, modern European and American history, American and municipal government, survey of Western civilization. Seeks position only for summer session, 1950. A 3461
- History: Mature woman, single. A.B., Rockford, M.A., Teachers College, Columbia, expects Ph.D., 1950, University of New Mexico. Fields: Latin American, American, early modern European. Teaching experience in United States, Hawaii, West Indies. Available fall, 1950. For information write J. C. Russell, Head Department of History, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.
- History: Gordon Kenyon, 35, married. A.B., M.A., expects Ph.D. in 1951, University of New Mexico. Fields: Latin American, Ancient, European. Experience: half-time graduate assistant handling quiz sections. Travelled widely. U. S. Army, 1942-1946. Available fall, 1950. For further information write J. C. Russell, Department of History, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.
- History: Katherine F. Nutt, single. A.B., Mary Washington, M.A., expects Ph.D. in 1950. Fields: Latin American, American, Musicology. Instructor, summer session; teaching assistant, 5 years' senior high school teaching. Available fall, 1950. For further information write J. C. Russell, Department of History, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.
- History: Paul Sanford, 23, single. A.B., Morehouse, M.A., Atlanta, expects Ph.D. in 1950. Fields: Latin American, American. Graduate assistant. Available fall, 1950. For further information write J. C. Russell, Department of History, Albuquerque.

- History: Floyd Snyder, 34, married. A.B., Geneva, M.A., expects Ph.D. in 1950. Fields: medieval and ancient Europe. Latin America, archaeology, anthropology. Teaching assistant, teaching experience, junior high school. Travelled widely. U. S. Army, 1941-1944. Available fall, 1950. For further information write J. C. Russell, Department of History, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.
- History: Man, 40, married. Ph.D. Phi Beta Kappa. 14 years' experience in college teaching. Author of widely-used college text and articles in leading journals. Specialties: U. S. social and cultural, U. S. diplomatic, recent American and European. At present associate professor in Eastern university; further promotion blocked by existing tenures. Available September, 1950. A 3462
- History: Woman. Ph.D. Experience in college teaching. Seeking position in woman's college. Available September, 1950. A 3463
- History: Man, 35, Protestant. Ph.D. in American History; also B.D. and S.T.M.; 6 years' college and graduate school teaching experience; at present, Professor and Chairman of Department in small liberal arts college. Available summer or fall, 1950. Preference, Eastern United States. A 3464
- History: Man, 30, married. Military service. A.B. summa cum laude, A.M., Ph.D. eastern universities. 2 years' successful teaching experience at Middle-western nonsectarian liberal arts college with a Phi Beta Kappa chapter. Promoted to assistant professor after first year. Specialty: American social and intellectual history. Have also taught medieval and modern European and Latin American history. Research program projected; one article published. Desires position in college or university of comparable or better grade where lighter teaching load will allow more time for intellectual development and for research. A 3465
- History: Man, 32, family; veteran. Finish Ph.D. at outstanding university this year. 2 years' university teaching experience. Unusual personnel experience. American history: colonial, national, recent; also English, Russian; some political science. Scholarships, honors. Complete file including confidential recommendations available on request. A 3466
- History: Ph.D. in Russian History. 6 years' major state university experience in European History and Radio Journalism. Desires summer or permanent position in or near Boston or San Francisco. Would like to use radio news background in Contemporary Problems course. A 3467
- History, Philosophy, German: Man. M.A. in Germanics from University of Chicago; Ph.D. to be received from University of Chicago in June, 1950, in Modern European History of Culture. Wide background in philosophy, including extensive study in distinguished Eastern graduate department. 2 years of teaching experience, mostly German, therefore desires transfer to history or philosophy department. Wife to receive University of Chicago Ph.D. in March; 4 years' teaching experience in German, French, and Humanities; also available. June or September, 1950. A 3468
- History and Political Science: Man, married, 1 child, Protestant. Ph.D. Professor in fully accredited college. 12 years' experience in college teaching and administration. 4 years as AAF officer, including service in occupied Japan. Author of several articles on American immigrants. Completing a book. Special interests: Great Britain and the Empire, American Diplomacy, Far East, Political Theory, Comparative Government. Available summer or fall, 1950. A 3469
- History or Social Science or Greek or Philosophy: Man, married. B.A., M.A., Greek history, Occidental College; Ph.D. candidate. Presently writing *History of the Cyclades*, native Hellen. Teacher of Hellenic, Hellenistic, Medieval, Classical, Man and Civilization, Russia, Byzantine, Greek, and tennis instructor. Recently with Arizona State College, University of Southern California, and University of New Mexico. Also educational missionary in the Far East. Desires position, available in June, 1950. A 3470

- History and Spanish: Man, 27, married, 1 child. Ph.D., Ohio State University. 3 years' teaching experience, 1 year in college Spanish, 2 years in history and political science. Phi Alpha Theta, Phi Sigma Iota. Excellent recommendations. Prefer East, Middle West, or Southeast. Available fall, 1950. A 3471
- Home Economics: A.M., unusually broad liberal arts background, considerable work on Ph.D. (1) Clothing, beginning and highly advanced, and Textiles, (2) Related Fields, and/or (3) Foods. Thoroughly trained and experienced also in general home economics, theory and practice, and with some experience in publicizing and developing department. Seeking permanent position as associate or full professor with or without chairmanship in good co-educational college or university. North Central States first preference. Would consider part-time work, beginning at once, with liberal maintenance salary, near Chicago, Cleveland, or Ithaca, with opportunity to continue study on doctorate. A 3472
- Humanities: Man, 44. Graduate Ecole du Louvre and Sorbonne. Broad cultural interests and extensive European travel. 15 years' teaching experience (Languages and Humanities) in Eastern university. 3 years in Department of State. Presently Curator of Painting in large museum. Location desired: East. A 3473
- Journalism: Woman, 36. Bachelor of Science in Journalism, Master of Science in Journalism, Medill School of Journalism, Northwestern University; Theta Sigma Phi. Newspaper, magazine, and book editing experience. 4 years of college teaching. Present rank: associate professor. A 3474
- Labor Economics, Industrial Relations, Business Administration, Economic Theory: Man, 35, married, children. 11 years' successful teaching, research, and administrative experience in leading colleges and universities; business experience as junior executive; government consultant; publications; academic honors. Desires greater opportunity for professional advancement. Available for September, 1950. A 3475
- Languages, French, Greek, Turkish: Man, married. M.A. Candidate for Ph.D. Linguist; 15 years' experience in undergraduate courses; also court interpreter and translator since the age of 13. Practical experience in collegiate wrestling and football line coaching. Studied abroad; member of Philological Club; recently selected for listing in *Who's Who of the South and Southwest*. Interested in teaching languages. Available February, June, or September, 1950. A 3476
- Languages, History: Man, 32, married, 1 child. Norwegian citizen, American wife. Graduate of Oslo University, Norway. B.A. and M.A. in English, Haverford College, Pennsylvania. Course in French at Université de Dijon, France. Authorized teacher of English, French, and History. Can also teach Norwegian, German, and Russian. 2 years' teaching experience at high school and university level. 1 year English instructor at American university. Administrative experience. A 3477
- Mathematics: Man, 44, single. Ph.D. Phi Beta Kappa. 9 years of experience in college and university teaching of mathematics, largely at undergraduate level. Desires to locate in warm, dry climate in extreme Southwest. Available fall, 1950. A 3478
- Mathematics: Man, married. Ph.D. Member of Sigma Xi and professional societies; listed in *Who's Who* and *American Men of Science*. Upwards of 20 years' university teaching, more than half of this period in present position. Now professor in fairly large university, desires similar position in smaller university or college, preferably in Middle Atlantic or New England States. A 3479
- Mathematics: Man. Ph.D. Now assistant professor in a university and has 6 years of college graduate and undergraduate teaching experience. Desires position beginning after June, 1950. A 3480

- Mathematics: Woman, 32. M.A. Experienced in teaching mathematics from high school algebra through differential calculus for veteran engineers. Also 3 years of actuarial experience. At present college instructor in mathematics and physics. Want all-mathematics position. Available June, 1950. A 3481
- Mathematics: Man, 38, married, 1 child. M.A. 3 years' recent study modern mathematics. Research publications. Previous degree and experience in engineering. Interested in teaching. Past 2 years instructor in large institution. Desires advancement and security necessary to continue research and to work for Doctorate during vacations. Available September, 1950. A 3482
- Mathematics: Age 31 years. Honours Mathematics Graduate of Merton College, Oxford University, England; seeks position as college or junior college mathematics instructor for academic year 1950-1951. 5 years' experience teaching adults of all ages in mathematics and elementary meteorology, with the "Barbed Wire University" in R.A.F. Prison Camps in Germany; also administrative experience as second in command of that University. A 3483
- Mathematics: Man, 31, married. Ph.D. in Mathematics from a leading university. 9 years of college and university teaching experience. Now assistant professor in an Eastern university. Best references. Available June or September, 1950. A 3484
- Mathematics: Man, Ph.D., associate professor at liberal arts college. Interested in summer teaching in New England or New York State. Special fields are mathematical statistics and analysis. A 3485
- Mathematics: Man, mature. Ph.D. Broad teaching experience; some experience in both administration and research. Desires professorship for 1949-1950. Has professional status of continuous tenure in present position; will explain desire for change to responsible inquirer. Interviews invited. A 3486
- Modern Languages (French, German, Spanish): Man, mature, married, no children. Ph.D., J.S.D. European background. Studied 1 year Munich University, 1 year Geneva University, 4 years Sorbonne and Law Faculty, Paris. American citizen over 15 years. Desires position, Chairman, Modern Languages Department or professor French, German, preferably graduate level, or Spanish undergraduate level. Qualified to teach modern European history, international law, French, Roman law. Practised French law 9 years. 10 years' teaching experience in America. Excellent references. University or college level, large city or vicinity. \$4000 up, less if able to supplement with summer and evening classes. Available immediately. A 3487
- Modern Languages (German, Spanish, French): Man, 45, Highly qualified linguist; native fluency, tested in radio and synchronization work. Foreign born, broad liberal education, *state examination (equiv. to M.A.)*. World travels, residence, studies. Vivid, successful approach to language study; bilingual scientific and literary courses; cultural, political, commercial relations; practical linguistry, phonetics, diction, interpretation, translation of graded material. Available any time. A 3488
- Modern Languages (Romanic, Germanic, Slavic) and Humanities: Man, 38, with family, American citizen, Protestant. Ph.D. *summa cum laude* Sorbonne. Long European studies and residence. Fluent command of French, Spanish, Italian, German, Russian. Scholarly publications and lectures in all these languages, including English. 15 years' teaching experience (Portuguese included); since 1939 in U. S. colleges and universities. Now professor in California. Seeks position commensurate with his abilities. Listed in the *Directory of American Scholars*. Can be released in June, 1950. A 3489
- Music: Man, 32, married, 3 children. B.S., M.Mus., M.A. 3 years' experience as head of piano section and theory teacher in senior college. Experience in playing

recitals and in accompanying. Membership in A.A.U.P., M.T.N.A., and M.E.N.-C. Available September, 1950. A 3490

Music: Man, 31, married. B.Mus., Ed., M.A., matriculated for Ed.D. Now finishing degree work at large Eastern university. Choral director and baritone soloist. Over 6 years' professional and educational experience, including 2 years of college teaching. Specialties: choral directing, teaching of voice, music literature. Prepared to teach music history, theory, conducting. Excellent recommendations. Available September, 1950. A 3491

Music: Woman, 39, unmarried. Mus.B., Yale University; M.A. with major in church music, Boston University; Ph.D. in progress with work at Harvard University and Boston University. 12 years' experience teaching organ and music theory. Choral conductor. Seeking advancement. Available September, 1950. A 3492

Music: Man, 33, married. B.S., M.A., Ph.D. American, now teaching at large Canadian university (associate professor), wishes to return to teaching in United States. 7 years' experience at university level teaching musicology, composition, history, harmony, counterpoint, etc. Instruments, violin and viola. Conducting experience. A 3493

Music: Woman. B.Mus., M.A., Ph.D. 15 years' experience in college and university work. Special interests: Theory, Music History, and Music Literature; experience in choral conducting, teaching piano; has worked in close connection with art departments and has participated in general humanities courses. Desires position as head of a music department or a professorship in Theory. Employed at present in an Eastern college. Prefers Southwest location. Available June, 1950. A 3494

Philosophy: Man, late twenties, married. M.A., New York University; Ph.D. in June, 1950, University of Nebraska. 2 years' teaching experience in philosophy. A number of articles published, including a contribution to the *Journal of Philosophy and Phenomenological Research*. Main interest in metaphysics and "existenz" philosophy, also aesthetics. Especially interested in philosophy of literature. Available September, 1950. A 3495

Philosophy: Man, married. Ph.D. 10 years' successful college teaching. Numerous publications. Constructive interest in values and the human situation. Desires position, appropriate to capacities, in major institution. Salary requirement: \$4400-\$5500, depending upon cost of living. A 3496

Philosophy and Religion: Man, 32, married, 1 son. S.T.B., Ph.D. in Philosophy. Over 3 years' teaching experience in Midwestern college; now acting head of department. Member AAUB, NABI, ATS, APA; listed in *Who's Who in the Midwest*. Available in July, 1950. A 3497

Physics: Man, 29, married. B.S., M.S. (M.I.T.), Ph.D. course work and half of written exams completed (N.Y.U.). Thesis in progress. Phi Beta Kappa. Air Corps Meteorologist, Captain. 3 years' physics teaching experience at large Eastern institution. Available fall, 1950. Will accept East Coast, prefer New York City vicinity. A 3498

Physics: Man, 46, married, no children. Ph.D. in Physics, B.S. in Electrical Engineering and Physics, strong minors in Mathematics. Also interested in History and Philosophy of Science. 15 years' teaching and research experience in Middle Western and Eastern universities and technical schools. All levels graduate and undergraduate. 2 years as operations analyst in a government bureau. Member of honor and professional societies. Extensive domestic travel. Publications. Primary interest is in teaching. Excellent references. Full or associate professorships in a university, technical school, or college, with opportunity for graduate or at least advanced undergraduate teaching. Possibly departmental headship. Available after June, 1950. A 3499

- Political Science: Man, married, 1 daughter, Protestant. M.A. degrees in Government and Library Service. 15 years' experience in research and library administrative positions. Teaching preparation in state and local government, administration, public affairs. Teaching experience in research. Desire combination teaching and librarianship or research position. J. H. Taylor, % Department of Government, Boston University, 236 Bay State Road, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Political Science: Canadian, 29, married, wishes to teach again in the U. S. or in South America. Ph.D. thesis submitted to Columbia this spring. 3 years' teaching American and European thought; American, Canadian, and British national and municipal government; federalism; comparative government; labor problems; business cycles. Numerous magazine and journal articles; directed several research studies for government agencies. Assistant or associate professor with prospects of permanency. Available June, 1950. A 3500
- Political Science: Young man, married. A.B., Illinois College; M.A., University of Minnesota. Course work completed for Ph.D. Phi Beta Kappa. 3 years' university teaching experience, American Government and Public Administration. Particularly interested in helping to develop small department. Available June, 1950. A 3501
- Political Science: Man, 43. Ph.D., Economics; M.S., International Law and Foreign Trade. 3 years' college teaching experience, 4 years as government economist and 2 years as consultant to private industry. Eight chapters of major study (forthcoming book) were published in four leading academic journals. Available now. A 3502
- Political Science: Man, single, Protestant. J.D. 10 years' teaching and government experience. Taught all standard courses in department of liberal arts college. Special interest: comparative govt., internatl. relations and organization, pol. theory. Publications, reviews; APSA. Widely travelled. Asst. professor before entering govt. service. Recent temporary appointment at outstanding institution. Available now, summer, or fall. A 3503
- Political Science: Man, 41, married. J.D. (leading American law school), Ph.D. Major interests: Public Law, Public Administration, Federal-State-Local Government. Has taught political theory and world politics. Successful teaching with high rating from both students and dean. Experience in research as Assistant Director, Bureau of Public Administration and Associate Director, Institute of Government. Publications. Experience with adult education in fields. Active in professional and civic affairs. Wide experience in public speaking. Desires professional advancement and salary increase. Now associate professor. Desires professorship and/or chairmanship of department, with salary in excess of \$5000. A 3504
- Political Science (Comparative Government, Political Theory, American Government, Government and Labor): Man, 44, married, 2 children. Ph.D. European Studies, foreign languages. 11 years of university teaching, research, Government service. At present visiting professor in Midwestern state university. Desires permanent teaching position, fall, 1950. A 3505
- Political Science and History: Man, 33. M.A., Ph.D. 5 years' college and university teaching. Fields: political theory, international relations, political dynamics, U. S. and Latin American government and history. Publications. Considerable travel and speaking experience. Available summer or fall, 1950. A 3506
- Political Science; International Law and International Relations. Minor in Government: Man, 31, married, 2 children. Columbia M.A., LL.B., and Ph.D. 4 years' experience. Prefer Northeast or West Coast. Salary must be above \$4400 for academic year. Available September, 1950. A 3507

- Political Science, U. S. History (Recent U. S. History, Naval History, American Government, Foreign Relations, Comparative Government): Man, 38, married, 2 children. Ph.D. Author of prize-winning book and over 140 articles in leading magazines. Extensive lecture and public relations experience. Also army historical work and magazine editorship. 15 years' teaching experience. Desires advancement beyond present university position. A 3508
- Political Science (man) and History and French (wife): Couple, teaching in institutions separated geographically, wishes to teach in same college or university. Wife would consider part-time position. Man, 46, B.A., LL.B., M.A. World War II veteran. Subjects taught: Government, International Law and Relations. Wife, 37, M.A., candidate for Ph.D., foreign study, 8 years' teaching experience of French language and literature; also European and Russian History. Both widely travelled. Available fall, 1950. A 3509
- Psychologist: Experienced professor, department head and director of public relations. Scientifically orientated. Ph.D. Available for teaching and/or administrative position. A 3510
- Psychology or Counseling: Man, 32, married, 3 children. Requirements completed for Ph.D. in June, 1950. Can direct counseling-guidance service or teach psychology courses; member American Psychological Association and other societies; 10 years' professional background. Minimum salary \$4500. Available summer or fall, 1950. A 3511
- Psychology, Guidance: Man, 32, married. B.A., Swarthmore College and M.A., University of Pennsylvania. Psychology major with supporting work in English, history, education. Work in industry and military service, total 5 years. A year of high school teaching and 3 years of teaching psychology in accredited colleges. 2 years as director of testing and guidance bureau in a college of 1100. Member of A.P.A., N.V.G.A., and A.A.U.P. Research publication. Present rank assistant professor. Some study beyond the M.A. at Harvard University. Desire position teaching psychology and/or student counseling responsibility in a co-educational college with mid-summer months free. Available summer or fall, 1950. Can furnish suitable references. Need salary around \$3500 for a teaching year indicated. A 3512
- Religion, Philosophy, Counseling: Man, 36, Protestant, wife and 2 children. Th.D. Experienced teacher and church leader, equipped to head department. Now in moderate sized Midwestern state university teaching religion, philosophy, some sociology and humanities, and doing student counseling. Available June, 1950. A 3513
- Religion or Religion and Philosophy: Man, 31, married, 1 child. B.A., B.D., Ph.D. Authorship: 1 book, several articles. 4 years' experience. Membership: A.A.U.P., American Philosophical Association, National Association of Biblical Instructors. At present assistant professor in liberal arts college. Desires position in college or university in Northeastern section of country. Summer session, 1950 or permanent position as of September, 1950. A 3514
- Religion or Psychology: Man, 32, married, 3 children. Member of several national societies; 10 years' experience; prefers to head department but will consider teaching position paying \$4500 or more; available upon receiving Ph.D. in June, 1950. A 3515
- Romance Languages, German, and/or Chinese: Man, 33, married, no children. Graduate German gymnasium; A.B. in Classics, Stanford; M.A. in Spanish, University of California; Ph.D. in Romance Langs. & Lits., Univ. of Calif.; continued Chinese studies at Univ. of Calif. German-born naturalized U. S. citizen; wartime service with FBI, OWI, OSS. Taught Spanish at Univ. of Calif. 5 1/2 years. Assoc. Prof., Dept. of Western Langs. & Lits., National Peking Univ., 1 1/4 year; left Peking when it was under Communist siege. Available now. A 3516

- Russian, General Linguistics, and Comparative Slavic Linguistics: Veteran, married, 1 child. A.B., Russian Literature, A.M., Russian Linguistics, Cornell University; expects Ph.D. in Russian from Cornell in June, 1950. Served as Russian interpreter while in the army in Korea. 4 years of experience teaching elementary and intermediate Russian at Cornell. A 3517
- Russian (Language, History, and Culture): Man, 47, married. Old-line American from New England. M.A., work toward doctorate in Slavic languages. Varied experience, including 5 years' teaching: 3 of English in Orient, 2 of Russian in an American university. Research for United States government in Japanese and Chinese materials during War. Should like opportunity to build new department of Russian. Wife, highly experienced librarian, would welcome position in same town. A 3518
- Secondary Education, Psychology, History and Philosophy of Education, or English in a teachers college, summer session (1950): Woman in forties holding a doctor's, as well as a master's degree. Full credentials available at institution granting doctorate. Has had experience teaching the above-named subjects. Prefers mountainous or northern parts of the States because of adverse effect of intense summer heat. A 3519
- Social Science: Man, 66, married. Will be retired June, 1950. M.A., University of Wisconsin. Further studies in Columbia and Illinois Universities. Study and travel abroad. Major field American history. Salary, rank, and tenure not very important. Prefer South or Southwest. A 3520
- Sociology, Guidance, Counseling, or Personnel: Man, married, Protestant. A.M. and Ph.D., Harvard University in sociology. First honors. Department chairman, three colleges and universities. 4 years as sociological consultant with national and municipal organizations. Lecturer. Specialist: race relations, pathology and the family. Prize-winning research in race relations. To be listed in forthcoming volumes of *Who's Who in American Education*; *Who's Who in the South and Southwest*; *American Sociology Up to 1950*; *Who's Who in America*. Manuscript material for two books now with publishers. A 3521
- Spanish: Man, 32. Completing work on Ph.D., Columbia University. 5 years in Latin America including study at Latin American University. Teaching experience: 5 years in New York State colleges and 4 years in Latin American schools. Available September, 1950. A 3522
- Spanish: Single, 45, Catholic. M.A., several years' high school and college experience. Instructor. Desires associate or assistant status. A 3523
- Speech: Man, 38, married. Doctorate expected in August, 1950. Formerly director of forensics in a large city high school, taught speech in three American universities. Publications; member of several honorary and professional organizations; much experience as commencement and occasional speaker. Desires either a teaching position of professorial rank or a department chairmanship. Available September, 1950. A 3524
- Speech: Man, 30, married, 1 child. A.B., M.A., and additional graduate study. 4½ years' college teaching experience. Has taught public speaking, voice and diction, group discussion, oral interpretation, radio, and theater history. Experience in play direction and debate. Desires position at present rank of assistant professor. Available in September. A 3525
- Speech and Drama: Man, 31, married, no children. B.A., 1943, will receive M.A., June, 1950. 4 years' college teaching experience, 3 years' high school experience previously. Qualified to teach all phases of public speaking and dramatics. Have directed approximately 30 full length plays plus numerous one act plays during past 7 years. Also have coached debate and other forms of forensic work. Member Alpha Psi Omega, and now Secretary of Province of Plains Pi Kappa Delta. Holds minister's license in Methodist Church and have been preaching in 2 country

churches every Sunday for past year in addition to teaching. Plans to do additional work at Southern Methodist University, summer, 1950. Seeking appointment in Protestant church affiliated college or university in the Midwest. Available September 1, 1950. A 3526

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Volume 33 WINTER 1960

Number 4

THE ANNUAL MEETING

Cleveland, Ohio

March 25-26, 1950

For statement concerning the program of the meeting, see pp.
716-718.

